The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1898.

The Week.

Trunkfuls of Cuban bonds are said to be in the possession of yellow journalists and other persons supposed to be influential. These "securities," says the Chicago *Record's* Washington correspondent, "are among the greatest embarrassments felt by the President in dealing with this matter." Obviously, these bonds are a fund for bribery. They cost nothing to the issuers; consequently, they can be distributed in any amount. Being issued by no recognized government, they can be repudiated at any time, but the holders can afford to take this risk, since they pay nothing for them. The bonds purport to become valid upon the recognition of the Cuban republic by Congress. Consequently, every holder of them has a motive to work for such recognition. "Many of the bonds," says the *Record's* correspondent, "have been given away to Cuban sympathizers, and millions have been sold for 3, 4, 5, and 10 cents on the dollar to raise funds to carry on the war. The members of the Junta have trunks full of them, and it is said that nobody knows the amount outstanding."

We have not yet heard from Mr. Dingley regarding the product of his revenue law in March. This is the month when import tariffs traditionally do their largest work. It is also the month upon which Dingley himself had fixed for a generous exhibit this season; in fact, the promise of a heavy surplus had originally been made for January, and was postponed only through stress of circumstances to March. What is the result? Customs receipts show decrease of $6,383,000 from March of 1897; they exceed only slightly the same month's yield in the worst years of trade prostration after the panic of 1893, and they run short of the March returns in years such as 1889 and 1890 by twenty to twenty-five per cent. Meantime expenditures are, of course, enlarged again; the Government's disbursements last month being, in fact, the heaviest ever made in that period during the present generation. The result, naturally, is another monthly deficit in income, not rendered any more cheerful from the fact that April's quarterly disbursements leave in a normal year a deficit of four to eight million dollars. We must therefore again remind the enlightened Dingley that a new explanation is in order, and that a new and more distant date for the inevitable surplus must be fixed. He surely will not leave the *Tribune* and his other faithful allies to meet this fresh discouragement alone.

Mr. Bryan has kept pretty quiet on the subject of war since the present excitement began, but he made a significant remark the other day, that if we have war the Republicans will be sorry that they upset the income tax. Now, it is not quite true that the Republicans upset the tax, although more of them than of Democrats may have contributed to that end. The tax was upset by the Supreme Court, and in that tribunal politics did not cut any figure whatever. The opinion of the court was rendered by Chief Justice Fuller, a Democrat, and the dissenting opinion by Justice Harlan, a Republican. Nevertheless, Mr. Bryan's remark has a deal of significance. In case of war it will be necessary to impose war taxes. It is well to cast a look backward at the war period in order to see what sources of revenue are available that are not now resorted to. First is the internal tax on manufactures, which yielded in one year during the civil war $127,000,000. Incomes came next with $61,000,000. Licenses, other than liquor and tobacco, yielded $14,000,000, stamps $15,000,000, gross receipts $11,000,000, and so on. There were taxes on sales, on salaries, on railroads, on banks, on pianos, billiard tables, watches, carriages, and horses, on perfumery and patent medicines, and on friction matches, and the tobacco tax was much heavier than it is now. The whole amount realized from taxes that have since been repealed was in one year $256,000,000. Now, if an income tax is impossible, at all events the other abolished taxes would have to be revived, because the tariff cannot be made to yield more than it is now yielding. In fact, war would cut down importation, and therefore customs duties, enormously, thus requiring a greater proportion of receipts from internal revenue. It is well to look these facts in the face.

The change of opinion among the people of California on the subject of Hawaiian annexation is highly important. It was essential to the success of the scheme that it should be favored by the State of the Union which is in closest relations with the islands. One plan of bringing about annexation which has been much discussed was to make the islands a county of California, giving it one member of the State Senate and two of the Assembly. A Washington letter in the last issue of the *Hawaiian Gazette* received in this office says that not only Speaker Reed, but many members of both branches of Congress, fear that a State will be created soon, and two Senators and members of Congress given to the newly acquired territory; that "some advocates of the county plan are urging that it will disarm the objections of those who foresee statehood in a short time, and secure their assent to the proposition." But this project is impracticable unless the California people want Hawaii for a county, and it is now clear that they do not. The *Gazette* gets the same news that we do regarding public sentiment in California, reporting that "the labor unions of the rural districts of the State will oppose it strongly, the farmers will also oppose it, and probably the sugar-beet men will follow them"; and it concludes that "the proposition to annex the islands as a county of the State of California does not appear to be, as matters now are, a very practicable matter."

The persons who have been favoring the bill to rob the Duncan Mission in Alaska of nine-tenths of its reservation and all of its means for productive industry, have found the road more thorny than they anticipated. A considerable and influential sentiment against the perpetration of any such injustice has been aroused. This may explain the introduction on March 25 of a new bill (H. R. 9481) by Mr. Dovener, entitled: "A bill to create a permanent reservation on Annette Island, southeastern Alaska, for the use of the Metlakahtla Indians and other natives of Alaska." Upon this promising title follows a text which, with immaterial modifications, confirms to the Indians about one-tenth of their present reservation, as in the previous bill, and concludes by repealing the provision of the Revised Statutes establishing the present reservation. The contrast between the title and the real intent of the bill is regarded by land pirates and Indian harriers generally as an exquisite bit of humor.

Mr. Wanamaker continues to expose the rottenness of boss government in Pennsylvania. He delivered another speech Saturday night, at Conshohocken, in which he declared that "the cause of the recent collapse of four banks and trust companies in Philadelphia may be put down to scrofulous politics." The banks which have failed had held a large amount of State money without paying interest on it, and Mr. Wanamaker told his hearers that "the taxes paid by you and others for your schools, charities, and State maintenance, have, to nearly a million, gone down in the wreck, only to be recovered by the assessment of derelict directors and trustful stockholders." He set forth the intimate relations that existed between the People's Bank (the Quay bank) and the Guarantors' Finance Company, and

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said that these relations should surprise no one, "as the same political friendship, the same dangerous relations, the same baneful influences, and the same daring men were the controlling power around and within both institutions." Mr. Wanamaker proceeded to describe in detail one of the most extraordinary performances ever known in an American State—the visit of a United States Senator to Harrisburg, "where, for a night and a day, he lobbied to pass what was known as the infamous Guarantors' Insurance bill, which was intended to give this insolvent company the right to amend its own charter by a vote of its directors; to change its plan and classes of insurance without authority of the State Insurance Department, thereby placing it beyond the jurisdiction of the State insurance officials, and making this particular company unanswerable to the protective insurance laws of the State." He told how from the Speaker's room this United States Senator directed the fight for the bill; how, while the House was in session, he summoned members to him, and on political and personal grounds urged them to vote for the iniquitous measure; how every branch of the State political machine, under his direction, was put in motion—requests, promises, and threats being freely used.

Mr. Wanamaker declared further that "only once in twenty years has a State Treasurer been elected that Quay did not own politically, and but once in all these years have we had a glimpse of the methods employed." This was in 1879, when Samuel Butler was elected as an anti-machine man, and upon examining the accounts of his predecessor he "found due-bills, orders, and worthless securities amounting, it is alleged, to several hundred thousand dollars, which he refused to receive as good assets." Mr. Wanamaker proceeded:

> "The story has been told in the New York *Evening Post* and several other metropolitan journals, and never yet has been denied, of how Quay, the political boss, and Walters, Cashier of the State Treasury, speculated in stocks with money belonging to the State Treasury, and substituted practically worthless securities for cash they had used; of how the approaching time for Treasurer-elect Butler to take his seat rendered it necessary to make good a shortage of what is commonly reported to be $300,000; of how an exposure was imminent when a friend came to the rescue and raised the money. The details of all this were known to but few until long after. Walters died by his own hand, and before he died he wrote a letter telling all. During the administration of Henry K. Boyer, Treasurer, now Director of the Mint, a threatened investigation forced his chief clerk to leave the country, and he is to-day a fugitive from justice. The State was saved from loss, it is alleged, by the liberal contributions from corporations and individuals who have long since received their reward by favorable legislation, secured through the influence of the machine."

It is a great thing for the cause of good government to have such revelations of boss rule in Pennsylvania as these from such a source. It is no Mugwump or doctrinaire who tells the story; it is a life-long Republican, who has never bolted the regular ticket, and who has been "on the inside," so that he "knows what he is talking about."

The people of the State owe it to Gov. Black that the session of the Legislature which ended on Thursday was one of the least harmful that we have had for many years. Not since Mr. Cleveland was Governor, have we had as the result of a winter's work a smaller amount of positively bad legislation than is to be found in the bills now awaiting executive action. This is due entirely to the position which Gov. Black took openly at the beginning of the session, when he declared that he would not give his approval to any measures amending the Greater New York charter except such as might be found essential to its actual working, and would not sanction "deal" measures of any kind. The flood of bills amending the charter was tremendous, reaching nearly or quite 100 during the first few weeks, but few of them got through both houses and none of them will become law. The great value of this service to orderly and honest government lies in the fact that the bulk of this legislation consists of what are known as "deal" bills. When a Republican Legislature proposes to interfere with the government of this city by Democrats, the main object in view is to get a share in the patronage of the government. The new charter placed an enormous amount of patronage in the hands of Tammany Hall, and as the placing of it there was due entirely to the course of the Platt Republicans in running a candidate of their own for Mayor, it was only natural for those Republicans to desire to secure what they considered their fair share of the spoils of victory. Their flood of charter amendments was designed to extort this, and but for the Governor's opposition they would have succeeded in passing their bills, thus meddling with our new city government before it had had an opportunity of being tested by practice, or would have compelled Tammany to give "terms" as the price of withdrawing them. Extreme examples of these measures were to be found in a proposal to abolish the new City Magistrates' Court, restoring the old Police-Justice system, and to abolish the Rapid-Transit Commission and substitute in its place a bi-partisan commission appointed by Tammany's Mayor.

Gov. Black's course is all the more commendable since, in taking it, he placed himself in direct antagonism to Mr. Platt, who is supposed to control absolutely the question of the Governor's renomination. He not only planted himself squarely in the way of all "deal" measures, but he exerted his power as Governor to force through the Legislature a revolutionary system of primary control which was bitterly distasteful to the Platt machine. What the law embodying this system will secure for us in practice remains to be seen, but there is no question that its passage is one of the most notable victories for independent party action ever achieved in this State. Its inventors and advocates were Republicans who revolted from machine leadership in this city last year, and the course of the Governor in cordially and efficiently supporting their ideas for purer party methods was a recognition of their power in the politics of the State which of itself is a distinct set-back to bossism. A bossed Legislature has been compelled to pass a reform primary law which contains a specific recognition of the right to disregard machine party obligations and orders in municipal campaigns and elections.

We called attention in last week's issue to a suit which had been instituted in this city, on a charge of criminal libel, against a man accused of furnishing reporters with false information for publication. A similar suit has recently been before the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, Fourth Department, and a verdict against the defendant has been affirmed with costs. The facts in this case are very interesting. In May, 1895, Senator Coffey, who represented Kings County in the Legislature, furnished the reporters with some extremely damaging statements about two members of the Assembly who were pushing a bill which Mr. Coffey was opposing. One of these sued him for libel and got a verdict of $6,500. Mr. Coffey carried the case to the Appellate Division, which held that while the evidence did not warrant the conclusion that the defendant was guilty of express malice in giving the information to the reporters, still it did "permit the inference that such statement was made carelessly and recklessly, and if the jury took that view of it, as they undoubtedly did, they were furnished sufficient justification for awarding punitive as well as compensatory damages." In their opinion the court called attention to an amendment to the section of the Penal Code, made in 1894, which renders it much more stringent than it was in its original form. Originally it provided that anybody who in any way transmits libellous information to a newspaper "for publication," and "thereby secures actual publication of the same," is guilty of a misdemeanor. As amended, the transmission of information, "which, if published, would be a libel," is made a misdemeanor. This makes the business of "stuffing" reporters with malicious information extremely dangerous.

A new law in relation to newspaper libel has been passed by the New Jersey Legislature. It contains some provisions very like those in the New York

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penal code, though less stringent in character. Any person who transmits libellous information to any newspaper or other publication, and thereby secures its actual publication, is declared guilty of a misdemeanor and liable to a fine not exceeding $500, or imprisonment at hard labor not exceeding two years, or both. A valuable provision for the press is the second section of the law, which provides that, in every civil action for libel, "unless the plaintiff shall prove either malice in fact, or that the defendant, after having been requested by him in writing to retract the libellous charge in as public a manner as that in which it was made, failed to do so within reasonable time, he shall recover only his actual damage proved and specially alleged in the declaration." This is in marked contrast to the kind of law which Croker and Platt tried to have enacted in this State, for it is designed to furnish reputable newspapers with an opportunity to make full reparation for errors into which they are led by malicious or careless informants.

The war on department stores has pretty much died out in this part of the country. In Chicago it has entered on a curious phase. An appeal was first made to the Legislature for the passage of a State law to break up the big establishments, but nothing was done at Springfield. Then the City Council was attacked, and an ordinance was passed by that body from which much was hoped. But the result has been disappointing, and the promoters of the movement have concluded that relief cannot be secured in this way. The next step in the campaign is very curious. The complaint against the big stores has always been that they undersell the small stores. A number of small dealers have now agreed to "pool their issues" and try to undersell the undersellers. They propose to open a large store in the heart of the city, which will be supplied with goods by the coöperating merchants, each of whom is to get a percentage of profits from all sales to customers living in his district. The "district" notion is an odd one, but the fundamental idea underlying the enterprise is sound—that the only effective way to fight cheap stores is with cheaper.

Prof. Briggs's final decision to cast anchor in the roomy harbor of the Episcopal Church will be variously received by Presbyterians. The militant brethren will profess satisfaction that they have finally got rid of him that troubled Israel. They will, however, not be innocent of inward quakings lest other troublers arise in his stead, and they will not be nearly as happy as they pretend to be over the fact that a man of the broadest scholarship and most sincere and undoubted piety has not been able to live and work in their communion. On the other hand, the liberal wing in the Presbyterian Church, some of the leaders of which were earnestly hoping that the ecclesiastical ban might soon be lifted from Prof. Briggs, will both grieve at his departure and probably be all the bolder in asserting that his views should be and, in fact, are tolerated in Presbyterian clergymen. The denomination, in truth, seems to have exhausted itself in casting out Prof. Briggs, and to be in no mood to pursue others for the same offences. He has gone, but his heresy remains, is openly avowed by prominent Presbyterians, and is in a fair way to become orthodoxy, as usual. But his loss can but be considered as the severest which American Presbyterianism has ever sustained.

The rejection by the Dominion Senate of the bill to ratify the contract entered into last January by the Canadian Government for the construction of a railway from Telegraph Creek to Lake Teslin in the Yukon district, has been a foregone conclusion for some time, and it appears, notwithstanding the utterance of partisan papers, to meet with very general approval, or at any rate acquiescence, among our neighbors. It is true that the majority of the Senate belong to the party now in Opposition in Canadian politics, but the unbiassed Canadian does not appear to consider their present course prompted by partisan feelings, but rather reluctantly taken in what they have deemed the best interests of the country. The fact is, the secret manner in which the contract was entered into, the neglect to afford an opportunity for tenders from other quarters, the enormous land subsidy (at least 3,750,000 acres, with all mineral rights), to be granted to the contractors, and the extraordinary prerogatives proposed to be given in the selection of blocks of land to make up this amount—all these things have caused the "deal" to be less liked the more it was looked at. Nevertheless, the action of the Senate is a bold one, probably the boldest taken by it since its origin at the confederation in 1867. The Dominion Senate holds a very different constitutional position from our own, which, as every one knows, represents preëminently the federal element in the Constitution. The Canadian Senate is intended as far as possible to hold a position similar to that of the House of Lords in the United Kingdom; for the framers of the Dominion scheme of confederation sought in every way to reflect the forms and preserve the principles of the modern British Constitution. All the constitutional rules and conventions which regulate the relations of the two houses in Great Britain regulate those of the two houses in Canada. Hence, to throw out a bill which has passed the popular House by a substantial majority, in a matter of urgency and of great popular interest, is a courageous act.

The conduct of the English press during the present crisis in British affairs is worthy of all praise. This crisis is ten times more serious for them than the Cuban crisis is for us. They are threatened with a war which would task all their resources, and might end in depriving them of their maritime supremacy. We, according to our most excited patriots, have nothing to fear but a petty sixty-day conflict, which can have no effect whatever on our national fortunes. Yet there has been the utmost calm and rationality among English newspapers — no shrieking, yelling, blathering, lying. Neither Salisbury nor Balfour nor Chamberlain has agreed to serve on the advertising committee of the *Halfpenny Blatherskite*, nor has any member of either house agreed to produce blatherskite in debate under contract in order to promote war. The spectacle is an impressive and ought to be a useful one. It is true the British ought all to be killed, and the monarchy broken up, but their way of meeting crises like the present is worthy of imitation.

The passage of the naval bill in the German Reichstag without any opposition, in spite of all the former mutterings and protests, shows how completely the Emperor's "mailed fist" policy has triumphed. The scanty support given to the attempt to honor the memory of the men who fell in the insurrection of 1848, and the presence of several of the sons of these men in the Conservative ranks, in some cases as agents of William's absolutist policy, is a striking illustration of the way Germany has fallen away from the liberal ranks. Fifty years ago she was abreast of France as a supporter of liberal political ideas; to-day she apparently cares nothing about them. "More markets" is now the cry, instead of "more liberties." The whole youth of a country cannot be put under arms without enormously strengthening the principle of authority, and discrediting discussion, and rendering the bulk of the population less fit for the conduct of a democratic government. Moreover, it must not be forgotten how much liberal institutions have been discredited, in sober German eyes, by the career run by democracy in France, here, and in Austria. The corruption, the disappearance of leading men, the rise of the "bosses," the fights in legislative assemblies, the absurdities promulgated in wild waves of passion, have turned the German heart perceptibly towards the monarchical régime, as the surest, the safest and most money-making. "Consecrated persons" are again on top, a century after "divine right" became ridiculous.

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DELIBERATION.

The most striking feature of the Declaration of Independence is the spirit of deliberation which it breathes. It was no hasty step which the representatives of the colonies took in severing the bonds with the mother country. Nor did the statesmen of that day consider that the mere announcement that our people wanted to be free would suffice. In the impressive language of that great instrument, they recognized that, when so grave a step was to be taken, "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation." History has fully justified their action.

There is to-day danger of war between the United States and Spain, and the most astonishing feature of the situation is the lack of deliberation which has thus far characterized the members of the war-making body at Washington. The President has from the first shown the clearest perception of the tremendous responsibility which would rest upon any man in this republic who should precipitate a war which might honorably have been avoided. But in both Senate and House there have been plenty of members who have not dissembled their desire for war, and who could not conceal their fear that the Executive might secure what this nation has sought in Cuba without war.

There is overwhelming evidence that the people have been with the President in his policy of deliberation, as against the Congressmen who are for rushing into war. Every day, in spite of the continuance of false rumors, and in spite of the possibility that the latest peace news may also be false or exaggerated, brings fresh justification of the President's policy. Every day's events strengthen the position he has taken, and make peace more probable. The nearer the time comes when, according to the Jingoes, "something must be done," and men are to begin to die for Cuba, the stronger becomes the wish that the controversy may be ended without killing anybody or destroying any property. Every day makes Spain less able to fight, more willing to treat and yield. The more she thinks over the issue of an armed conflict with the United States, and the more she hears from the rest of Europe about it, the less valiant she feels. That she may fight still is, of course, possible. Our contention is simply that the longer fighting is postponed, the less likely it becomes. For this reason, it is not impossible that when President McKinley's account is made up at the last great day, he will find the saving of thousands of lives, the prevention of thousands of sorrows put down to his credit. He, more than any other man in public life, has realized the great truth that war is something that rarely suffers from delay; that the occasions are few when more talk and more consideration may not prevent it altogether.

On our side we see evidences every day of progress, not towards war, but towards peace, of increasing confidence in the President's policy. Such, conspicuously, was the speech made last Thursday in the House by Mr. Johnson of Indiana, in deprecation of war, in which he was not afraid to hurl defiance at war hissers in the gallery, on behalf of humanity and civilization. Mr. Frye of Maine, who has been very Jingoistic, telegraphs to the Maine State Board of Trade:

> "Their confidence in our Chief Magistrate does not exceed mine. I am well informed of his purposes, his conduct, and his hopes: know that diplomatic negotiations are about concluded and their purport; have hopes that the result may be what we all desire, an honorable peace; but propose, so far as I can, to be prepared for disappointment. The committee on foreign relations, of which I have the honor to be a member, will do nothing rashly, will give to the resolutions referred to it careful, conscientious, and deliberate consideration; will be in constant communication with the President, and without doubt act in entire harmony with him."

He would not have said anything publicly about "hopes" of peace, or "careful, conscientious, and deliberate consideration," three weeks before. His talk would then have been about the "national honor" and the need of prompt action. Then, we must remember that three weeks have immensely diminished the influence of the yellow journals, which were in the beginning the chief promoters of the war fever. Their lies and exaggerations have been among the chief influences against which the President had to contend in following his own judgment. Had he been influenced by the excitement they stirred up in the beginning, about five thousand young men would have been killed or maimed and a ship or two sunk by this time. They have, however, overdone the thing and reduced themselves to impotence. Sounder notions of "national honor" have begun to circulate. This phrase "honor" is borrowed from the duellists, but has really no meaning in the international relations of a community like ours. In the duellist terminology, a man's "honor" means his reputation for physical courage. It is to prevent any doubts about this courage that he fights. Accordingly, we often find that a man who has fought many duels declines to fight another, on the ground that he has "made his proofs"; that is, has shown conclusively that he is brave. In the duelling world, therefore, fighting about anything and everything, is absolutely necessary. The question, Are you right or are you wrong? is of no consequence. The one question is, Are you afraid of being shot at or stabbed?

The adoption of the term "honor," as used by duellists, by a nation like ours, in dealing with a nation like Spain, is, therefore, ridiculous. Saying that our honor in the bellicose sense requires us to fight Spain is absurd. It is like saying that a brawny pugilist's "honor" requires him to meet a slight and consumptive youth in the "twelve-foot ring." We cannot be suspected of fear in the duellist's sense, as a motive for going to war with a declining and distracted people like the Spaniards. "Honor" of that kind is useless baggage for a rich and puissant nation 70,000,000 strong. The only honor she needs to possess is the honor of a respectable and respected business man; that is, a reputation for living honestly, fulfilling all obligations faithfully, injuring no man, and giving every man his due. This duellistic honor goes strictly with war patriotism. The man who has most "honor" for war is generally the man who has least patriotism for peace, who does not care how his country is governed, or to what bad influences she is exposed. He will cheat, steal, read yellow journals, go to the country on election day, make fraudulent contracts, and invite Croker to dinner, in time of peace; but the minute the fierce blasts of war blow in his ears, his patriotism infuriates him, and he wants to kill anybody who doubts it. As Capt. Mahan pointed out the other day in the *Evening Post*, the honor of a strong people lies simply in doing right. Its strength gives it the luxury of a moral sense; and the moral sense of a Christian people covers love of all things which make for peace, and nothing makes more for peace than slow negotiations.

AMERICAN FINANCE.

The hot-heads in Congress who want to plunge the country into war without adequate cause and without sufficient military or naval preparation, could not be expected to have much regard for financial preparation. Nevertheless that would be the first question to be considered, and the most pressing one from start to finish. Fortunately we have at the head of the Treasury Department a man of financial experience and not a tyro. In this respect we are in better shape than we were at the beginning of the civil war, when we had in that position, indeed, a man of high character, fine legal attainments, and lofty patriotism, but one wholly destitute of financial training, and who caused a suspension of specie payments quite unnecessarily at the very beginning of the struggle.

The first thing to be considered is the present financial situation. This must be considered precarious. The Government has demand liabilities outstanding to the amount of nearly $900,000,000. This includes silver certificates and silver dollars. As these must be kept at par with gold, under penalty of a general smash, they must be reckoned in the same category as the greenbacks and Treasury notes. The two latter amount to $450,000,000 in round numbers. In normal times and in a condition of fairly

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good business, none of these notes would be presented for payment unless gold were wanted for export, which is not the case now. The fact remains, however, that those notes are liable to be presented for redemption. The amount of gold in the Treasury is only $150,000,000 or thereabout.

The next element in the situation is the ominous fact that the public receipts are not equal to the expenses on a peace establishment; that the Government is now, and has been for a long time, living in part on a reserve borrowed by the last administration. This reserve has been diminishing gradually, but would have served for a sufficient time to determine whether the Dingley bill would furnish the needed amount. If not, then new taxes would be required and would be enacted in due time. If we plunge into war, three consequences will follow: the demands on the Treasury will be vastly increased; importations, and consequently customs receipts, will fall off enormously; the Government will be compelled to have recourse to the gold reserve, and the holders of greenbacks will have a powerful incentive to present them for redemption lest specie payments be suspended. Who are the holders of greenbacks? Every man and woman in the United States who has a dollar in pocket or in bank. All these dollars are resolvable into legal-tender money, and all legal-tender money is resolvable into gold as long as the Treasury has gold to pay. The drain would be manifested in New York because here the bulk of the gold is stored, but it would most likely start in Minnesota or Texas, whose bankers, anticipating a run, would order their New York balances to be remitted to them in gold. If their New York correspondents should tender them greenbacks instead, they would take these around the corner to the sub-treasury and draw the gold themselves. Refusal on the part of the New York banks to draw gold at the request of the country banks would cause not more than one day's delay in getting at the Government's hoard. Probably, in such a mêlée, we should hear a good deal of unmeaning gabble about the lack of patriotism on the part of bankers, as though bankers could exercise any volition to prevent their depositors from taking what they are entitled to have. The element of danger in all cases of this kind is that each man fears that somebody else will get ahead of him in the race for self-protection, and therefore each will want to take an early start.

Fortunately we are not engaged in war yet, but if war comes we shall be on a paper basis, which means that the Government will be bankrupt, within thirty days, unless a large loan is authorized and negotiated promptly. What kind of a loan shall this be? Under present circumstances it is doubtful if anything short of a gold bond could be sold except at a ruinous discount. Certainly none could be sold abroad unless made specifically payable in gold. What view might be taken by capitalists at home is a matter of doubt. Capitalists are generally opposed to war except in self-defence. They are much opposed to an emotional war, a Jingo war, an unnecessary war, and they would take the most mercenary and businesslike view of a war pushed upon an unwilling President by a Congress that had given no mature consideration beforehand to the means for carrying it on. They would look at the subject as a matter of investment strictly, and would buy the bonds or not buy them according as they might consider them safe or not safe. They could not avoid considering the fact that a large party, claiming to be a majority of the nation, are in favor of paying all the public obligations in silver worth less than half the value of the present standard. They could not avoid considering the fact that war is an uncertain factor in the polity of governments, that the most unexpected things may happen both internally and externally—things which need not be considered now—and hence that it would be the part of prudence to insist upon having a gold bond in exchange for gold. Would our silverite Senate ever pass a bill for an issue of bonds payable in gold? We pause for a reply.

SPANISH FINANCE.

The cost of the Cuban insurrection is charged against the Cuban treasury, but this is a fiction of bookkeeping, as the Cuban treasury has long been bankrupt, and even in years of peace could not meet the heavy charges imposed upon it by former insurrections. To sell in foreign markets bonds with a Cuban guarantee only was out of the question, and a Spanish backing was necessary. As the more profitable sources of revenue in Spain outside of the customs had been pledged or farmed out, and could not be hypothecated more than they were, the customs revenue was made the foundation of a new loan, the evidences of which were to be "Cuban" bonds, guaranteed by a pledge of the "Spanish customs." Even this combined and somewhat mongrel scheme did not appeal to the investors of France and Belgium, and the Spanish Government was thrown back upon internal loans.

To what extent was the Spanish customs revenue available for credit? The receipts from this source in 1896-'97 were $24,195,520, which would pay the interest at 5 per cent. on about $500,000,000. But the full amount cannot be thus employed, as a sum must be set aside each year for extinguishing a part of the capital of the debt. Since May, 1897, when authority to use this customs revenue for credit purposes was conferred on the ministry, nearly three-fourths of the possibilities it contained have been exhausted. A first issue of 400,000 bonds pledged nearly one-half ($11,826,558) and a second issue, 200,000 bonds, again took its full quota of one-fourth ($5,913,279), leaving available the sum of $6,455,715. At the end of December, 1897, the cabinet decided to create a third issue, to be of 400,000 bonds, to be held against any emergency that might arise, the special emergency being trouble with the United States. Although this third issue more than exhausts the revenue from customs, assurance is given of a further pledge of the taxes on colonial merchandise, on spirits, and on foreign and colonial sugars—taxes which produced in 1896-'97 about $4,613,000. Beyond this it does not seem possible for Spain to go in pledging her existing revenue. Only a drastic reform of her revenue system can provide new resources.

Having established the credit for a loan and determined the nature of the security to represent it, the question of disposing of the bonds was still to be met. A 5 per cent. bond at 60 should be a tempting purchase, provided there was any confidence in the ability of the borrower to meet the full obligations of the contract. Unfortunately, no foreign investors held this confidence to such a degree as to warrant the purchase of large blocks of the Spanish-Cuban bonds; and, indeed, the older securities of the Peninsula, bearing only 4 per cent. interest, were rapidly returning to domestic markets. In this dilemma, the first two issues of the new bonds were sold at home, and largely to the Bank of Spain. This operation is, however, considered as a temporary expedient, as the Bank passes the securities on to its clients, and thus is enabled to make a fair showing in its balance-sheets. At the end of December, 1896, the Bank held of the 4 per cent. stock, $79,340,000, and in December, 1897, $77,310,000. The large transactions in Spanish-Cuban bonds had left no trace in that item of state securities in the Bank's reports, and must be sought in the loans and discounts. That item had risen from $75,600,000 in January, 1897, to $128,550,000 at the end of December, 1897, and on March 5, 1898, stood at the high figure of $143,595,000.

This shows how Spain is meeting the expenses of the war. Were it not for the Bank, she could not obtain funds, and every recourse to the Bank weakens the position of that institution. Already on a paper-money basis, it is only by increasing its issues that the demands of Government can be met; and every new issue makes necessary the form of a security. As it is, the Administration is depositing with the Bank the Spanish-Cuban bonds and receiving advances in banknotes. The "reserve" of gold and

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silver still represents a good proportion to the circulation, but in the last year the Bank felt called upon to purchase gold to place in the reserve, and this purchase involved a heavy loss. In January, 1895, a month before the insurrection broke out in Cuba, the Bank held $38,951,466 in gold and $54,154,412 in silver, against a circulation of $177,890,041. In January, 1898, the gold had increased to $45,895,962; the silver had fallen to $50,193,081, and the circulation had mounted to $236,098,248. The movement since the beginning of the year is of particular interest, as it marks the extraordinary activity in issuing banknotes incident to the steady demands of the Government on the Bank.

The following table gives in millions the specie and the circulation of the Bank of Spain each week since the first week in 1898:

	Gold.	Silver.	Circulation.
January 8	$47.2	$51.5	$242.6
January 15	47.2	51.6	245.3
January 22	47.2	52.4	245.8
January 29	47.2	52.8	246.9
February 5	47.5	52.6	249.5
February 12	47.5	53.3	250.3
February 19	47.6	53.5	249.3
February 26	47.7	54.4	249.8
March 5	47.8	54.4	250.9
March 12	47.9	54.3	251.9

Evidently this operation cannot go on much longer. As soon as the Spanish-Cuban bonds are exhausted, the Government must create some new revenue or credit. The first would require time, and the second will not check the vicious involving of the Bank in the bankruptcy of the nation. As it is, the Bank is authorized to issue $300,000,000 of its notes, provided a reserve of one-third the amount issued be kept in specie. There is sufficient gold and silver now in the vaults of the Bank to constitute a reserve for the full amount of issue authorized. In a few months of actual war the limit of issue will have been reached, and, with the currency already at 34 per cent. discount, a removal of every limitation on the amount will precipitate a depreciation that must involve a financial cataclysm and temporary paralysis of all commerce and industry.

The very basis on which these bonds are issued is suffering a contraction, and so affecting the value of the securities; for the customs receipts in the first seven months of 1897-'98 were more than $2,400,000 less than in the corresponding period of 1896-'97. Another significant move is the fall in the quotations of Spanish securities other than Government issues. Indeed, the fluctuations in the railroad stocks are of greater moment than the variations in the Government securities, for the railroad obligations have a certain guarantee or value behind them, while the worth of the national stocks is dependent on the resources of the Treasury. Whatever financial institutions rest upon movements in these Government and railroad bonds have suffered in credit. The larger part of the assets of the Crédit Mobilier Espagnol consists of these obligations, and has always consisted of them. The shares of this society were quoted at 190 in 1890; 80, in 1893; 63, in 1895; and are now selling at 52, having touched the extremely low mark of 40 in 1897. Spain is expending $9,650,000 a month in Cuba, and had a total debt of $1,649,475,737 on January 1, 1898, of which nearly one-sixth was a floating debt, certain to prove troublesome when it must be met or funded. The charges on this great debt take two-thirds of the entire revenue of the state ($101,746,832 out of a budget of $152,970,000), leaving less than $50,759,000 to meet the current expenses of the Administration, a costly war in Cuba, and extraordinary demands in the Philippine Islands. It follows that Spain is conducting her wars entirely on credit, and, as foreign money markets are closed to her, on credit of the worst and most dangerous description—internal loans at ruinous rates, a floating debt, already large, and bank issues at greatly depreciated values.

THE NEBRASKA FREIGHT-RATE DECISION.

The unanimous opinion of the United States Supreme Court handed down on March 7, prohibiting the enforcement of the Nebraska maximum freight-rate act of 1893, is the last of a long line of important cases affecting railway property, the first of which were the so-called Granger decisions (Munn vs. Illinois, 94 U. S., 113). Down to the period of the Granger agitation it had always been assumed that railway property in the United States was protected against invasion by State authority, through the clause in the Constitution which prohibits interference with the "obligation of contracts" (art. 1, sec. 10). This was owing to the authority of the Dartmouth College case (4 Wheat., 518), according to which charters were contracts, with which the States could not tamper. In the Granger cases, however, while this principle was neither overruled nor avowedly qualified, a new principle was resorted to which was adapted to impair most seriously the defences of property against legislative attack. Under this ruling, all property was held subject to a right of legislative supervision and regulation, provided it was "affected with a public interest." Many people suppose that the Supreme Court applied this only to railroads, on the ground that railroads were "monopolies" and had an arbitrary power over rates; but in reality they made it cover all property, whether in the nature of an exclusive legislative franchise or not, in which the public had an interest that the exactions of the property-owner should be reasonable. Munn vs. Illinois itself was not the case of a railroad, but of property invested in private grain elevators.

It was manifest that if the Legislature of a State had the right, in the interest of the public, to regulate, not merely transportation charges, but the price demanded for every article which was "affected with a public interest," a principle existed most dangerous to property. There is no property of any sort, from the most primitive and universal to the most artificial and refined, that is not affected by a public interest. The idea underlying the opinion in Munn vs. Illinois was that only such property was affected by a public interest as required an invitation to the public to put it to use, *e. g.*, a railroad charter, a ferry franchise, anything from which a toll is taken; but the fact is that the public has to be called in whenever a price for any property or its proceeds is to be got. The right to sell labor, or service of any kind, or food, or books, or newspapers, or to get rent from the use of land, is what gives the "property" its life; and hence the logical deduction from the decision was that of a general legislative power to fix prices, or at least maximum prices, in all cases. That in this decision lay some of the seeds of the later development of "Populism" there can be little doubt.

It became very soon obvious that if the constitutional guarantees which protect the citizen against the Legislature were to be of any avail, and the position of the Federal courts in our system was to be upheld, some way must be found to qualify the control over property conceded to it by the Granger cases. A long line of decisions, culminating in the Nebraska case, have been rendered which have gradually established the doctrine that while the Legislature may regulate the charges to be exacted by the owners of railroads, elevators, ferries, and other property "affected by a public interest," they derive this right from the supreme "police power" of the State, and must exercise it reasonably, so as not to violate those provisions of the Constitution which guard the citizen against being deprived of his property by a State without due process of law (Const. U. S., 14th amendment). Applying this principle to railroads, it follows that while a State can by legislation and through legislative commissions fix the rates at which persons and property shall be transported, if it fixes these rates at such an unreasonable figure as to operate as destruction or confiscation or deprivation of capital invested, the regulation is void and of no effect, and that this is wholly a judicial and not a legislative question; and, further, that such unjust regulation can be prevented by injunction.

The importance of this conclusion can hardly be overstated. In the Nebraska case, though the action was nominally against certain officers of the State, the decision was in effect to uphold an injunction against the State itself, absolutely forbidding the enforcement of its whole freight tariff, on the ground of its injustice. It is true that the case leaves

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it open to the State to remodel its tariff and then apply to the court again; but if this is done, the final decision will still rest with the court. In other words, the State Legislature can never in any case decide the question what it is reasonable for railroads to charge, so as to preclude a judicial examination of its action by the Federal courts. It cannot even leave the matter to its own courts, for in almost every conceivable case (as in this) some circumstance, such as a difference of citizenship in the parties, will arise, to give Federal jurisdiction.

If we ask how the court undertakes to determine what are and what are not reasonable rates, the answer is, by the same means that a perfectly just and omnipotent ruler would decide such a question. The cost of the railroad, its running expenses, the average return on similarly invested capital, are all to be taken into the account, and the court then decides whether the rate is fair or unfair. In the Nebraska case the court prepared a table showing the effect of the tariff, year by year, from 1891 to 1893, supposing it to be in operation on the seven railroads affected. In the last column the result is shown, and the result was that the profits would have been swept away.

To sum up the principles of the decision, which the court explicitly states will apply to future cases, it is not enough to show that a State tariff prevents a railroad from paying its operating expenses, fixed charges, and a dividend upon its stock. This would make the profit to the railroad the sole consideration. A railroad is a public highway, and the "rights of the public" would be ignored if other matters were not taken into the account. These other matters are the fair value of the property invested, fictitious capitalization, and the question whether the rates exacted by the company in order to pay dividends, would "impose upon the public" a burden "for the purpose of realizing profits upon such excessive valuation or fictitious capitalization." What evidence is relevant to such an inquiry? The court says: "The original cost of construction, the amount expended in permanent improvements, the amount and market value of its bonds and stock, the present as compared with the original cost of construction, the probable earning capacity of the property under particular rates prescribed by statute, and the sum required to meet operating expenses," are all matters for consideration; but "we do not say that there may not be other matters."

Many observations might be made on this decision, but practically the most important point about it is that it makes the law perfectly plain, and makes railway property much more secure from attacks through State legislation than it has hitherto been.

CHARAVAY'S LAFAYETTE.—III.

PARIS, March 24, 1898.

Lafayette's relations with Bonaparte have been told with very interesting details by Lafayette himself in 'Mes Rapports avec le Premier Consul.' They were at first very friendly, but became more distant when the Consulate for life was established. Lafayette was an incorrigible liberal; he voted against the Consulate for life, and his relations with the First Consul came to an end. He spent his time in the occupation of a gentleman-farmer; he refused a high rank among the dignitaries of the Legion of Honor when this new order was founded. Napoleon grew very angry with him and tried for a moment to connect him with the first conspiracy of Malet. All through the Empire, we find him living in retirement, going only occasionally to Paris, occupied with his own affairs, always keeping up a correspondence with his American friends.

When the evil days came, and when France was invaded, he offered his services, but they were not accepted. On the day when the Allies entered Paris (March 31, 1814), he shut himself up in his house in Paris and wept bitterly. He wrote a letter to the Count d'Artois, and presented himself, in uniform, to the King, who received him with politeness. The Duke d'Orléans gave him a warm reception; spoke to him of old times, of their common proscription, of the community of their views and principles. Lafayette met the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Russia. He saw Alexander at Madame de Staël's. The Emperor of Russia complained to him of the Bourbons and their prejudices. "It seems to me," said Lafayette, "that they ought to have been amended by their misfortunes." "Amended," said Alexander; "they are *incorrigés et incorrigibles*. There is but one, the Duke d'Orléans, who has liberal ideas; as for the others, you can hope for nothing from them." "If such be your opinion, sire, why have you brought them back?" "It is not my fault." The same evening Lafayette saw Talleyrand, and they exchanged views regarding the Bourbons.

Lafayette was in the country when he heard the news of the landing of Bonaparte in Provence. He had become very much dissatisfied with the royalists and the *émigrés* during the first Restoration; on the other hand, he did not believe in the new liberalism of Bonaparte: "Republican in Provence, half-republican at Lyons, absolute Emperor in Paris." He was elected a Deputy, and, after the disaster at Waterloo and the abdication of the Emperor, he was one of the six commissioners charged by the Chamber with the painful mission of entering into communication with the Allies. The Commissioners found the allied sovereigns at Hagenau, in Alsace, on June 30. They were not received, and their arrival caused some irritation. Lafayette wrote a letter to the Emperor Alexander, and asked to be received by him as a private person. All he could obtain was permission for the six delegates to enter into communication with four commissioners of the Allies, who were Capo d'Istria for Russia; Lord Stewart, for England; Gen. Knesebeck, for Prussia, and Gen. Wallmoden, for Austria. In the discussions which took place, Lord Stewart told Lafayette that peace with France was impossible if Bonaparte was not placed in the hands of the Allies. "I am surprised," said Lafayette, "that, in proposing such an act to the French people, you should address yourself to a prisoner of Olmütz."

The delegates returned to Paris, where they arrived July 5, 1815, after the capitulation had been signed. There was nothing left for the Chamber to do; Blücher entered Paris, and the Prefect of Police, Decazes, closed the doors of the Palais Bourbon. After signing with his colleagues a vain protest, Lafayette retired to his country house, La Grange.

He took a dark view of the future of the second Restoration. In a letter addressed to Lord Holland, December 15, 1815, we read:

"I will not say with Charles Fox, in his Memoir on the reign of James II., that 'a restoration is the worst of revolutions, because it has the inconveniences of a revolution, and besides deprives the people of all that was advantageous in the preceding revolutions.' . . . The present dynasty has unfortunately never desired to occupy itself with the general regeneration of France; it has stood a stranger to the principles, the successes, the politics of this country for more than twenty years. . . . I say with all sincerity, notwithstanding the acquired proof I have that the royal family will never cease to hate me and to try to harm me, I should still prefer them if I could persuade myself that they would at last bow to the evidence of their interests and their security, and that they would not incline, as they do now, to the destruction of all that I have passionately desired while consecrating myself to the defence of the rights and interests of my country, as well as of all mankind, throughout my life."

In 1818 Lafayette was elected a Deputy from the Department of La Sarthe. He took his place on the left side of the House and became one of the chiefs of the Liberal party. In 1821 he allowed himself to be involved in a secret conspiracy against the Government. A provisional government, of which he was to be a member, was to be proclaimed at Belfort and established at Colmar. It seems extraordinary that Lafayette should have consented to take part in such a dangerous and imprudent action; but he started in December for Alsace, and learned at Lure, in the Haute-Saône, that the Government had discovered the plot; no movement took place, and Lafayette returned to La Grange. Four sergeants of La Rochelle, Gen. Berton, and Col. Caron, were tried and executed. The Government did not institute proceedings against Lafayette, Benjamin Constant, Manuel, Gen. Foy, Laffitte, whom it suspected to be in sympathy with the conspirators.

Lafayette was reëlected a Deputy in 1822, at Meaux, but he lost his election in 1824, and carried out a project, which he had long cherished, of making a visit to the United States. His journey was a long ovation. Congress made him a gift of $200,000 and of 24,000 acres. I shall not go into the details of this visit, during which Lafayette entered into friendly communication with President Monroe, John Quincy Adams, who was elected President during his sojourn; with Gallatin, Daniel Webster, John Adams. He was Jefferson's guest at Monticello. He left Havre on the 11th of July, 1824, and returned there on the 4th of October, 1825. On his return he received his portion of the famous "milliard des émigrés," though he had always repudiated all confusion of himself with the *émigrés*. But he had children and grandchildren, and he thought that he owed it to them to claim compensation for such of his estates as had been confiscated and sold while he was in exile. The share which he claimed amounted to 325,000 francs.

He was elected a Deputy from Meaux in

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1827 and again in 1830. He received at La Grange a copy of the *Moniteur* containing the famous ordinances which caused the Revolution of 1830. During the last years of the reign of Charles X., he had been in the head and front of the Opposition in the Chamber; he perceived at once that the insurrection in Paris was the signal of a revolution. He saw his colleagues of the Left in Paris, and assumed at once the direction of the movement. He accepted, on the 29th of July, the command of the National Guard. He installed himself at the Hôtel de Ville. On the 30th of July the Deputies met at the house of Laffitte, and afterwards at the Chamber, and decided to offer to the Duke d'Orléans the General-Lieutenancy of the kingdom. In vain did Charles X. withdraw the ordinances and dismiss the Polignac ministry. Lafayette declared that all reconciliation was impossible, and that the royal family had ceased to reign. Lafayette, M. Charavay says rightly, was undoubtedly at that moment the master of the situation. He could, if he had chosen, have proclaimed the republic and been named President. The eyes of the Liberal party were turned, however, on the Duke d'Orléans, who had never been associated with the illiberal policy of Charles X. Lafayette had a conference with the leaders of the Liberal party; he declared to them that, though the republican form of government had his sympathy, he believed that a constitutional monarchy was more suitable for France. This declaration was transmitted to the Duke d'Orléans, who went, on Saturday, July 31, to the Hôtel de Ville. Lafayette received him at the foot of the steps and conducted him into the building. The Hôtel de Ville and its surroundings were still full of people who bore arms and who had taken part in the struggle; and many of them were republicans. "No Bourbons!" was the cry of the populace. The General placed a tricolor flag in the hands of the Duke d'Orléans, led him to one of the windows, and embraced him. This demonstration was the solution of the problem, together with a word which went the round of Paris in an instant: "The Duke d'Orléans is the best of republics." This famous scene was made popular by various engravings. Some of the leaders of the popular movement made stipulations with Lafayette, who guaranteed that the new monarchy should be subject to certain conditions. These conditions were never embodied in any written document; they were (under the name of the "Programme of the Hôtel de Ville," by which they were often alluded to afterwards): the recognition of the sovereignty of the people, the abolition of hereditary peerage, and several dispositions concerning the elections, etc. Lafayette summarized the programme when he said that "a popular throne would be surrounded with republican institutions."

On the 7th of August, 1830, the two Chambers called the Duke d'Orléans to the throne. At the sitting of the Chamber of Deputies, Lafayette insisted strongly on the abolition of the hereditary peerage. He had himself become again as popular as in the first days of the great Revolution. Louis-Philippe appointed him commander of all the national guards of France. He was present at the Champ de Mars, in that capacity, at the distribution made by the King of the new tricolor flags to the national guards. The Chamber a few months after passed a law placing the civic guards again under the control of the Home Office. Lafayette thought himself insulted by the vote of the Chamber, and resigned his command. He wrote to his friend Ségur: "It is time that I should withdraw. I am, I know, a nightmare to the Palais-Royal; not to the King and his family, who like me, and who are the best people in the world, whom I myself tenderly love, but to their surroundings. Have I not heard Viennet say before the King, on seeing me enter the room, 'Here is the *Maire du Palais*'?" Nothing could alter the General's decision, and the King finally accepted his resignation. From that moment, Lafayette, feeling perfectly free, threw himself openly into the constitutional opposition; he persevered to the end in what he considered his mission, the defence of republican and democratic measures. As his friend Ségur says in his memoirs: "From his early years to the end, he seems to have obeyed a sort of predestination. He was candidly, invariably, unreservedly devoted to this terrible mission."

Lafayette died at the age of seventy-six years, in the Rue d'Anjou, in Paris. The Government gave him a splendid official funeral. He was buried in the little cemetery of Picpus, where some victims of the Revolution had been buried, and where his wife had been waiting for him for twenty-seven years.

Correspondence.

TIMELY INQUIRIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A pugnacious personage in Congreve's "Old Bachelor" declares that, for him,

> "Fighting for fighting's sake's sufficient cause:
> Fighting to me 's religion and the laws."

Persons of less ardent temperament, however, before they engage in a quarrel, wish to know clearly what they propose to fight for.

As an American citizen who, in this Cuban imbroglio, is anxious to bestow his sympathies on rational grounds, I beg you to inform me: (1.) How large a part of the people of Cuba really desire independence? (2.) What sort of people are these? (3.) What kind of independence do they want? (4.) What reason have we for thinking that they will be better off if they get it?

I have looked in vain, in the innumerable speeches and communications on Cuban affairs, for answers to these questions, which yet seem to me of considerable importance.

B.

THE FALLACY OF INTERVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If intervention by nation A in the affairs of nation B is to-day good law and justice, because of B's oppression of a portion of its people, then intervention in nation A's own affairs by nation C or D may to-morrow or next week become equally good law and justice. The right to meddle which we claim to-day must equally be conceded to others against ourselves when the time comes; and the time never fails to come to every nation. Take the condition of the blacks under slavery in our own country. That was a case of cruel oppression on an immense scale, as our civil war clearly conceded. But should we have listened for a moment in the '50's to a British proposal to teach us our duty by stepping in to free the blacks by force? Did we not even treat it as an insult that the British should offer to feed the starving Southerners? When, as late as 1894, a British society was formed for a crusade against negro-lynching in the South, did we not serve notice that even such peaceable meddling in a most righteous cause would be resented? Would we, at any moment, now or in the past, have brooked any outside rebukes of our scandalous maltreatment and looting of our nation's wards, the Indians? In the winter of 1886 nearly 100,000 Chinese, in this civilized republic of liberty, gathered in California, fugitives from the frightful cruelty and oppression of the whites throughout the Northwest; but would we have conceded that this national dishonor was the business of any European state? The mere statement of the case shows how preposterous the notion of intervention becomes when once practically and consistently applied—as of course it must be. It would become the most prolific breeder of international discord ever invented. No nation could pass a decade of its life without giving cause for the self-righteous meddling of some other nation, blameless of that particular sin. The civilized world would be in a state of intermittent war, waged in the name of humanity. Let our neighbor's blood be upon his head and our own upon ours. We must all agree to stand firmly by this rule, for any other is absolutely incompatible with the peace of the world.

And yet our people, in these closing years of the century, inspired by the conceit of their own prosperity and power, are allowing themselves to lose sight of the world's experience and boldly assuming the seat of an international dispenser of righteousness, vested by their own mandate with the task of doing justice to the oppressed. First it was the Jews under the Czar that we reached out to encourage; then it was Venezuela against Great Britain, the Armenians and the Greeks against the Sultan, and now the Cubans against Spain. No one knows what distant community will be the next object of our sentimental frenzy. It is fortunate for us that each of these waves of romantic emotion speedily absorbs and abates the preceding one, else we might by this time have had half-a-dozen wars on our hands. Can we not learn the lesson that, however noble these sympathies may be, they do not confer on us the right to assume such an impossible function as that of international dictator of righteousness?

What of the other reason—that which tells us that we have as little duty as right to interfere? This rests upon an enlightened selfishness which realizes the chimerical impolicy of surrendering ourselves to the altruistic pleasure of meddling. There are individuals whose circumstances are so comfortable, and whose opportunities so manifold, that they may devote the better part of their time to righting the wrongs of other individuals. But of nations there is none such. The business of international reformer is a luxury in which no nation can afford to indulge. Its own problems are deep and fierce and pressing enough to engross its complete attention. It is simply a wicked neglect of duty to its own people when a nation allows itself to spend on suffering foreigners that energy and anxiety which is thus diverted from those who have

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the first claim upon it. We are acquainted, among modern women, with that type of mother who seeks to fulfil her mission by assiduous attendance upon clubs for the improvement of other women and other women's children, and who meanwhile neglects her primary duties to her own children and home, and we justly ridicule such conduct. But are we not fast coming, as a people, to exemplify that type of conduct among nations? Are we not tending to become an international gadabout and charity-monger, while the increasing evils of our own household are complacently neglected? We have vitally interested ourselves in the affairs of a South American dictatorate; we have groaned over the Russian Jew-baiting and the Turkish misrule; and now we choose to think of nothing but Spanish misrule in Cuba.

Meanwhile, we are heedless of the approaching precipice of national repudiation and bankruptcy, the pregnant terror of the labor problem, the racial oppression of blacks and of Indians. Inspired by the love of foreign humanity, we are insensible to the stench of municipal corruption. Shocked by the photographs of starving Cubans, we lavish our money to buy food and appropriate millions to make war for them, while the thousands of starved and oppressed creatures within a stone's throw of us, in New York and in Chicago, beg for help in vain. They may live and die in their slums for all the help they will get from us when we are filled with fine frenzy for (foreign) humanity. Ask any worker in the slums, who knows the true conditions of our poor and oppressed, and he will tell you that, if the neglect of their condition is ever excusable, it ceased to be so when we so readily passed them over and poured out our wealth in abundance to a stranger community, whose sufferings, forsooth, were so much more romantic and heart-stirring because they were not so close to our own doors.

There is a dissipation in charity as well as in drink. This emotional and flighty altruism is as unhealthy as it is misguided. It violates the dictates of moral consistency, national duty, and international experience. We may as well come to realize that this sentimental dissipation of meddling in other nations' affairs is, in spite of its attractions, bad national morals and wicked neglect of home duties. We cannot afford it. The sooner we turn back our national energies into the channels of domestic duty, the greater the chances of the Republic mastering its own internal dangers and vindicating to its critics the mission of popular self-government.

J. H. W.

CHICAGO.

DREYFUS AND PRINCESS CAROLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Fortnightly Review*, for March, Baron de Coubertin, in an article entitled "The Contradictions of Modern France," has explained the reverence which the French have for the army. And, while admitting that, in the Dreyfus trial, "the strict forms of justice were somewhat distorted," yet he would not have the distortion remedied, for fear of destroying the prestige of the army.

Pertinent to this whole affair is the account of a famous trial in English history in the early part of the century. The Royal Family was involved, and the monarchy—an institution as dear to the English as the army is to the French—was threatened with overthrow. The events which led up to this trial were as follows: The Princess Caroline of Brunswick had been married to her cousin, the Prince of Wales, afterward George IV., than whom a more graceless, brainless creature never existed. This "great simulacrum," as Thackeray has called him, was incapable of devotion, and, soon tiring of the Princess, resorted to the basest means in order that he might convict her of misconduct, and thereby afford himself ground for separation. Every humiliation was heaped upon her, and, to crown all, she was denied the privilege of living with her daughter.

At last the situation became so unendurable that the Princess left England and went to the Continent. But the length of Europe was not sufficient to protect her from her husband's malignity, and she encountered his spies wherever she went. Matters came to an issue upon the death of George III., when the Princess found herself a queen in a foreign land, with no arrangement made for her allowance, and no certainty as to the recognition that her title would receive. The King sent a statement of his terms, namely, that she would be allowed an annuity of £50,000, that she was to take up her residence abroad, and that she was not to take any title belonging to the Royal Family. All negotiations were to cease if she stepped foot on English soil.

The Queen refused the terms, and proceeded to England, where action was at once begun against her in the shape of a "bill of pains and penalties, with an attempt to degrade the queen-consort and deprive her of her rights." Brougham was counsel for the Queen, and his management of the case was masterly. All that he desired was to clear the Queen of calumny. However, had the bill passed the Lords, instead of being laid aside after its second reading, Brougham would have impeached the title of the King, for, by his marriage while heir-apparent with the Roman Catholic Mrs. Fitzherbert, he had placed his title in jeopardy, and of this fact Brougham had proof of the most damaging character.

A speech which Brougham made while the bill was pending illustrates his conservatism, and at the same time his determination that the majesty of the law should not be trifled with:

"My lords, . . . if I did not think the cause of the Queen, as attempted to be established by the evidence against her, not only does not require recrimination at present, not only imposes no duty of even uttering one whisper whether by way of attack or by way of insinuation against the conduct of her illustrious husband, I solemnly assure your lordships that, but for that conviction, my lips on that branch would *not* be closed; for, in discretionally abandoning the exercise of the power which I feel I have, in postponing for the present the statement of that case of which I am possessed, I feel confident that I am waiving a right which I possess, and abstaining from the use of materials which are mine. And let it not be thought, my lords, that if either now I did conceive, or if hereafter I should so far be disappointed in my expectation that the case against me will fail as to feel it necessary to exercise that right—let no man vainly suppose that I, or the youngest member of the profession, would hesitate one moment in the fearless discharge of his paramount duty. . . . An advocate, by the sacred duty which he owes his client, knows, in the discharge of that office, but one person in the world, *that client and none other*. To save that client by all expedient means—to protect that client at all hazards and costs to others—is the highest and most unquestioned of his duties. . . . Nay, separating even the duties of a patriot from those of an advocate, and casting them, if need be, to the wind, he must go on reckless of the consequences, if his fate it should unhappily be to involve his country in confusion for his client's protection!"

MARY E. LANE.

BARRE, MASS., March 28, 1898.

A HINT FOR TOURISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that a great many of your readers are, no doubt, planning a trip abroad for the summer, allow me to call their attention to a most interesting and unique place, and that is Königsfeld, near the Triberg waterfalls, in the Black Forest. Some years ago I had the pleasure of making a pedestrian tour with Mr. Archibald Forbes from Strassburg to the Odelienberg in the Vosges Mountains. On our return Mr. Forbes told me that he had several days at his disposal, and asked me where he should spend them. I suggested Königsfeld, of which he had never even heard the name. But he started next morning by the Kinzig Valley Railroad, and left the train at Peterzell, from which station Königsfeld is reached in half an hour by omnibus. The consequence of Mr. Forbes's visit was a most interesting four-column article in the *Daily News*, which, unfortunately, was not read by American sight-seers, or I am very sure many would have since been influenced to stop at Königsfeld, instead of hurrying on to Switzerland.

Your readers may ask what special attraction, more than any other village, has Königsfeld; to which I would reply that it is a Moravian community, as Bethlehem, Lititz, and Nazareth were a hundred years ago, when Washington, Lafayette, Adams, Lee, and others went from New York and Philadelphia to visit them. Although Königsfeld has remained unknown to American tourists, English, French, Swiss, and Germans in large numbers go there every summer for a longer or shorter stay. You find there professors from Heidelberg, Bâle, Tübingen, Berlin, etc., who enjoy studying the life among the Moravians. In fact, it has become a summer resort for the antiquarian and those interested in religious communistic life. There are excellent hotels and boarding-houses at Königsfeld. The principal one, the Gemein-Logis, carried on by the church authorities, is the best; but all are good and comfortable. Then, from Königsfeld as headquarters, delightful excursions to various points in the Black Forest can be made.

ARMIN DE BONNEHEUR.

"IN OUR MIDST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a cutting from the *Sun* of the 7th instant, sent to me by a friendly correspondent, I observe that I am called, "as a writer, . . . one of the most confused, tortuous, pedantic bunglers that ever set pen to paper." And why this shower of unsavory missiles? So far as appears, simply because of my having said, five and twenty years ago, after production of abundant proofs, that, "with reference to analogical principles, *in our midst* is altogether irreproachable." I found myself compelled, by facts, to differ from the ruling of Dr. Webster's editors, that *in our midst, in your midst*, etc., "seem contrary to the genius of the language."

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As analogues of *in our midst*, I formerly brought forward *in my absence, in our despite*, and other locutions of the same stamp. But of this fact the *Sun* says nothing, and, moreover, pretty obviously, knows nothing. To be discredited at random is considered as being my appropriate desert. "Dr. Hall and his analogies," we are merely told, "must be thrown out"; following which notification of ejectment come, with original logicality, the metaphorical dead cats and addled eggs aforesaid. So much for the *Sun*.

In her middis, equivalent to *in their midst*, I have adduced, in my 'Modern English,' from a treatise some four hundred years old. Similar expressions, I have reason to believe, however, were of rare occurrence down to about the middle of the current century. Some quotations for them may, accordingly, be acceptable to the curious; and here they are:

"He stuck, at last, yet *in their midst*, it seem'd." Chapman, *Cæsar and Pompey* (1631), Act iii., in *Dramatic Works* (1873), Vol. iii., p. 159.

"If we then could have had our dear Dr. Bell *in our midst*, our pleasures and improvements would have been greatly heightened." Rev. C. John (1794), in Southey's *Life of Andrew Bell* (1844), Vol. i., p. 205.

"We forget that these very errors would have remained invisible, but for the enduring light that broke out *in their midst*, intersecting, and contracting them." Rev. Dr. James Martineau (1846), *Essays Philosophical and Theological*, Second Series (1869), p. 133.

"We . . . looked upon the luxuriant plain, the glittering capital shining *in its midst*." Lawrence Oliphant, *A Journey to Katmandu* (1852), p. 132.

"We can only wish their authors success in the salutary though unattractive task of disclosing to Europe the cesspool of filth which lies *in their midst*." *Saturday Review* (1858), Vol. v., p. 46.

"*Out of its midst*." Bp. Samuel Wilberforce (1872), *Speeches* (1874), p. 326.

"The presence, *in our midst*, of what remains on earth," etc. Cardinal Newman (1873), in Robert Ornsby's *Memoirs of James Robert Hope-Scott* (1884), Vol. ii., p. 253.

However it may be in the United States, *in our midst*, with the like, now rarely incurs any censure in England. One here sees it in passable writing, and even better than only passable, every day. Authorities for it I have long ceased to collect.

Of interest, as illustrating a use of *midst* which has become obsolete, are the following passages:

"Never Prince carried his life farther into death; for it seemes he past, without any *midest*, from one extreme unto the other death." Edward Grimston, Translation of P. Matthieu's *Heroyk Life*, etc. (1612), Part I., p. 145.

"It stood, indeed, in another *midst*." Abp. John Williams (1636), *The Holy Table* (1637), p. 210.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 23, 1893.

A DISCLAIMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to a circular recently issued in behalf of the proposed National Art Club of New York, in which my name is included in the list of those who favor the establishment of the club. Will you permit me to say that this has been done absolutely without my knowledge, and in spite of a letter which I wrote to the Secretary expressing my doubts as to the advisability of increasing the number of artistic organizations in New York city at the present time?

Very respectfully yours,
EDWARD ROBINSON.

MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS,
BOSTON, April 4, 1898.

Notes.

Copeland & Day are about to publish 'Songs from the Ghetto,' a German transcription from the original Yiddish of Morris Rosenfeld, with an English prose translation by Prof. Leo Wiener, of Harvard. Our readers are not unaware of this remarkable production of the sweat-shop. From the same firm will come 'Ireland, with Other Poems,' by Lionel Johnson; 'Impressions,' poems by Mrs. T. S. Perry; and 'On the Birds' Highway,' by Reginald Heber Howe, jr.

'Advanced Rules for Large Assemblies,' by Mrs. Harriette R. Shattuck, is announced by Lee & Shepard.

A new collection of poems by Bliss Carman, 'By the Aurelian Wall, and Other Elegies,' is being brought out by Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have undertaken a translation of Brunetière's 'Manual of the History of French Literature'; 'The Poems and Sonnets of Shakspere,' edited by George Wyndham; and Tolstoi's 'What is Art?'

'Tennyson's Debt to Environment' is the theme of a little book, by Prof. William G. Ward, which will have the imprint of Roberts Bros.

Through Dodd, Mead & Co., Prof. Harry Thurston Peck will issue a translation from Petronius, 'Trimalchio's Dinner.'

Mrs. Murray Macdonald's translation of 'Karl Marx, and the Close of his System,' by Prof. Böhm-Bawerk, will be shortly forthcoming from Macmillan Co.

Nearly ready, in Frederick Warne & Co.'s list, is 'Stories from Dante,' by Norley Chester.

In Waugh's "Pamphlet Library," published by Henry Holt & Co., the next volume is 'Religious Pamphlets,' by the Rev. Percy Dearmer.

Harper's June issues embrace 'George William Curtis at Brook Farm and Concord,' by George Willis Cooke; 'Collections and Recollections,' by an anonymous writer; 'Crooked Trails,' by Frederic Remington; 'The Moral Imbeciles,' by Mrs. S. P. McLean Greene; 'Phases of an Inferior Planet,' by Ellen Glasgow; 'A Romance of Summer Seas,' by Varina Ann Jefferson Davis; and 'The Story of a Play,' by W. D. Howells.

Longmans, Green & Co. have in press 'Stonewall Jackson,' by Col. G. F. N. Henderson; 'The Life of Admiral Duncan, First Viscount of Camperdown,' by his grandson, the present Earl; a 'Memoir of Major-General Sir Henry Creswick Rawlinson,' by Canon Rawlinson; 'The Story of the Malakand Force, 1897,' by Winston L. Spencer Churchill; and 'The Life and Letters of Henry Reeve,' late editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, by J. K. Laughton.

The third and concluding volume of the 'Letters and Times of the Tylers,' by President Lyon G. Tyler, of William and Mary, is now obtainable of Henley T. Jones, Williamsburg, Va. The edition is, unfortunately, limited to 250 copies, and should readily be absorbed by the public libraries alone.

A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago, announce as in a forward state of preparation, 'Who's Who, the Country Through'—a dictionary of the living celebrities of the United States, of both sexes. It might be difficult to explain why our publishers have hitherto looked askance at a project like this, with contemplated periodic revision and reissue. Across our northern border, Mr. Henry James Morgan, a practised biographer and prolific author of excellent hand-books, has just got out, through William Briggs, Toronto, 'The Canadian Men and Women of the Time,' of more than a thousand pages, which he hopes to work over three years hence, and indefinitely thereafter, at the same interval. The compiler's scope includes Canadians abroad as well as at home. His sketches are highly praiseworthy for their compactness and the lack of such fulsome eulogy as our own cyclopædias often tolerate as the result of gratuitous assistance from relatives and friends. Mr. Morgan ingeniously substitutes for this quotations, in appreciation, from the press and other sources. He takes pains, however, to show each character's relation to the questions and movements of the day—as, politics, temperance, imperial federation, etc. An innovation much to be commended is the regular mention of wife or husband as a necessary part of the subject's life and connection. Finally, the present address of each personage is appended. So far as we have tested this work, it is eminently satisfactory in execution, and we trust the compiler and publisher will find their account in it.

The 'Directory of Titled Persons' ventured last year as a companion to 'Whitaker's Almanack' (New York: Brentano's) has proved a success, and is indeed a most handy compendium. The issue for the present year profits by the absorption of Walford's 'Windsor Peerage,' and is swollen with "the exceptional number of the Jubilee honors." A grouping of each peer's issue and other titled relatives is a distinct improvement. The convenient index to country seats and residences cited in the Directory fills twenty-eight pages.

Those Americans who have laid their plans for a summer in Spain cannot be many, in the present strained relations of the two countries; but such as venture can now avail themselves of the brand-new Baedeker, 'Spain and Portugal' (Charles Scribner's Sons), in rivalry with O'Shea's 'Guide to Spain and Portugal,' which six years ago was in its ninth edition. In wealth of detail and abundance of maps and plans, this volume parallels the other members of a series whose quality is beyond the need of advertising or of praise. There is a list of the artists mentioned in the handbook, and this is the only appendix. Under Barcelona, mention is made of the steamers which ply to Port Mahon and to Palma; but, by an omission which decidedly needs to be repaired, the Balearic Isles are excluded from the editor's scope. Their delightful scenery and their attractiveness as a sanitarium merit a better acquaintance on the part of tourists. Palma might well, in time, become a port of call for the German steamers from New York to Genoa, which now pass in sight of the islands.

The bound volume of the 'Cumulative Index to a Selected List of Periodicals: Authors, Subjects, Titles, Reviews, Portraits,' for 1897, forms the second in this remarkable enterprise of the Cleveland Public Li-

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brary. It is cumulative not only in the sense of a serial issue which contains in each succeeding part all that has gone before, but in its growing comprehensiveness. As compared with volume one, 100 periodicals have been indexed, against 70, and the bulk increased from 384 pages to 635. Book reviews and portraits have been still more carefully looked after, and a new heading, Poetry, gathers up the verse heretofore scattered in the main alphabet. *Literature* and the *American Journal of Archæology* will be included in the current Index, which is now the promptest of all keys to the periodical literature of the day.

Benj. R. Tucker has fulfilled his promise to print 'The Trial of Émile Zola: A detailed report of the fifteen days' proceedings in the Assize Court at Paris'; but, large as the event was, a smaller type would have been more legible, and we could have spared the eccentricity of a ragged right-hand edge, the result of not spacing out the lines.

Pascal forms the subject of two recent publications; the first being a new edition of his 'Pensées,' edited by the Abbé Margival, and preceded by an interesting study of the author and his much discussed work. The editor has taken as the basis of the text (which is intended for use in colleges and schools of a higher grade, as well as for the students of Pascal in general), the Bossut edition as revised by Havet. His preference is clearly for the original Port-Royal edition, but it could not be accommodated to his purpose. The second book is a study of Pascal and his work, great space being given to the 'Provinciales,' and greater still, as is proper, to the 'Pensées.' It is entitled 'Pascal,' is written by a competent scholar, M. Maurice Souriau, and published in the Lecène-Oudin series of "Classiques Populaires." Admirably composed, it reads as easily as a work of fiction, though a very serious study of a very serious author. M. Souriau's style makes even the drier parts of the subject interesting and attractive. He does not exhibit partisanship or undue enthusiasm in striving to give his readers a true portrait of Pascal, and a correct view of his purpose in the composition of his famous works. He has a theory, which he develops and maintains very strongly, that Pascal intended his 'Apologie,' of which we have only the fragmentary materials in the 'Pensées,' to defend not Christianity so much as Jansenism in particular.

When Emin Pasha was murdered five years ago, it was known that he had left a large abundance of manuscript matter that would throw considerable light on his unique personality and career. These sources have now been used in the preparation of a biography by his nephew, Georg Schweitzer. Emin, especially in his later years, was in steady and prolific correspondence with his sister, and in addition kept a diary down to almost the day of his death. The Life now published by Hermann Walther of Berlin is based chiefly upon these new sources of information. In spite of the most charitable construction naturally put on all Emin's doings, the work will doubtless become his standard biography. It shows that he was preëminently not a man of action or of statesmanship, and still less a soldier, but a savant, scholar, and specialist.

A little volume of select translations from Mrs. Browning's poetry ('Poesie Scelte di Elisabetta Barrett Browning'), avowedly free, has just been made by an Italian whose versatility, as poet, painter, art critic, patriot, statesman, senator of the realm, philanthropist, recalls Massimo D'Azeglio. Tullo Massarani, now past sixty, has undertaken a task which might daunt a youth, and would, indeed, have been impossible if carried out in anything like a literal fashion. Not all the power of poetical compression which resides in his native tongue could, without omission and paraphrase, turn, for example, the five-line stanza of "Mother and Poet" into a four-line; and if the cisalpine imagination toys with such a line as

> "And 'broider the long-clothes and neat little coat,"

it avoids altogether such another as

> " 'Twere imbecile hewing out roads to a wall."

In this poem, Massarani's changes in the original metres which his admiring colleague, G. Negri, animadverts upon in the Milan *Perseveranza* for March 14, are exemplified to his disadvantage; but, as we have implied, he will be forgiven, considering the difficulty of the job. Negri asks whether the publication of this memorial of a devoted friend of Italy amid the fiftieth anniversary celebrations of the Revolution of 1848 was patriotically intentional; and sighs over the common absence of other signs of survival of the spirit of those glorious days. "Come tutto passa e si trasmuta quaggiù!" These translations may profitably be compared with the English. The publishers are Fratelli Treves, Milan.

The whole of the March number of the *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) is taken up with a notable bibliography of the literature of psychology and cognate subjects for 1897, compiled by Livingston Farrand of Columbia and Howard C. Warren of Princeton in coöperation with N. Vaschide, Paris, and B. Borchardt, Berlin. An author's index follows the classification by topics.

The *Land of Sunshine*, edited with so much spirit and independence by Mr. Charles F. Lummis at Los Angeles, Cal., has become incorporated, and now proclaims itself a "Magazine of California and the West." A number of well-known writers have united to make it worthy of the trans-Missouri portion of the continent, as appears in the April number.

The *Geographical Journal* for March opens with an account, by Lieut. Peary, of his four journeys to Greenland, together with his plans for his next expedition. These are, in brief, to establish a small Eskimo settlement as far north as a ship can take it, and then to transport it, if possible, with supplies, to "the most northerly point of land, wherever that may be." From thence (say, 85° N.) he will endeavor to reach the pole; and if the first attempt is unsuccessful, he will repeat it, being prepared to stay four or five years, if necessary. Not entirely dissimilar to the experiences of the American explorer were those described in the next article, by Dr. Sven Hedin, in his account of his four years' travel in Central Asia. Substitute camels for dogs, a tarantass for a sledge, Kirghiz for Eskimo, and deserts of driving sand for fields of drifting snow, and the differences between a journey at the end and on the "roof" of the world are not so very great. Here also there were ice-covered passes to be climbed, amid blinding snow-storms and an Arctic temperature, as well as interminable tracts frightful from their loneliness. But in Asia there was the added suffering from thirst and from the swift transitions from freezing cold to scorching heat; and during the terrible crossing of the Takla-makan desert, most graphically described, Dr. Hedin was for six days without water. His most interesting discovery was the ruins of a city, probably more than ten centuries old.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains, besides the Hon. D. W. Carnegie's account of his Australian explorations, a description by Major Yates of life at Chaman, the present terminus of the Quetta and Kandahar Railway on the Afghan frontier. It is a dreary place on the edge of a vast desert, in which last year there was no rain from April 22 to December 7. There is some permanent cultivation, chiefly by means of irrigation, but the nomads plough the ground and sow the seed in the winter months, and harvest their wheat and barley in June, unless it is eaten by the locusts. Both papers are illustrated with reproductions of photographs of characteristic scenes.

Remembering the fame which Munich enjoyed as a literary centre in the sixth decade of the century, when King Maximilian II. had gathered around him the coryphei of German poetry, a number of more or less eminent writers and poets, now living in the Bavarian capital, have recently formed the Munich Literary Society, with the distinct purpose of awakening the community from its somewhat unnatural lethargy. A lay membership of about a thousand, and several successful meetings during the first two or three months of its existence, seem to augur well for the future prosperity and usefulness of the Society. Its spirit is a catholic one. Not only are older dramatic productions, not generally found in the repertories of the theatres, represented under its auspices, but its interest is directed to any new production of real poetic worth, regardless of form or tendency. Young talents may, therefore, look to the Society for that hospitable reception and mediating influence through which the *freie Bühnen* in certain cities have opened a career to such dramatists as Gerhart Hauptmann and Max Halbe. Each reading, recitation, or stage representation is given but once, and only before the members of the Society, no guests or paying auditors being admitted. Thus, while members of the Munich stage take part in the performances, all competition with the public theatre is precluded. So far, representations have been given of Shakspere's "Troilus and Cressida," of Tolstoi's "Die Macht der Finsterniss," of Hartleben's "Die Erziehung zur Ehe" (a satire on European social customs), and a play by a still younger dramatist, Bruno Piper, a typical modern production, having for its painful subject the parting of George Sand from Chopin on the island of Majorca, and closing with an impressive scene in which the composer pours into passionate chords the sorrow from which his genius draws new inspiration.

In a catalogue of modern paintings to have been sold on March 30 at the Hôtel Drouot in Paris, we remark a photogravure after a picture by Manet, showing the *Alabama* in the offing at Cherbourg: a "kodak" of exceptional interest and value.

We have received the new Harvard University Catalogue for 1897-98. As this publication has served as a model for others, we will suggest one needed improvement. It is easy to refer from the index to each student in his department, but no such aid

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is given in the case of the officers, whose arrangement (pp. 6-28) is by collegiate seniority and not alphabetical.

Senate Document No. 161 emanates from the Library of Congress, and is a list of books relating to Cuba, compiled by A. P. C. Griffin, Assistant Librarian, together with a bibliography of maps, compiled by P. Lee Phillips, superintendent of the maps and charts department. Mr. Griffin's list has an eye to periodicals as well as to books. It is mainly concerned with the political history of the island.

An International Congress of History will open at The Hague on September 12, when the Netherlands celebrate the majority and coronation of their Queen. It is organized under her auspices, and will be presided over by the Minister of Foreign Affairs and by M. de Maulde de La Clavière, General Secretary of the Paris Société d'Histoire Diplomatique. Membership, for women as for men, is procurable for a subscription of twenty francs ($4.00), which insures the distribution of printed copies of the papers read before the Congress. Each nation may use its own language in papers and discussions. The organization of the United States section has been intrusted to Mr. James Gustavus Whiteley, No. 223 West Lanvale Street, Baltimore.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, adds to his imperial-panel series of photographs of eminent Americans the late Gen. Rosecrans, in a very striking and lifelike reproduction.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* for April contains several articles of interest. Among the more purely literary are "Personal Impressions of Björnsen and Ibsen," by W. H. Schofield, who seems to have had many opportunities for observation. Ibsen is described chiefly by negatives. He will not talk of the "meaning" of his plays—professing in one case to have entirely forgotten what he meant; and on other subjects connected with literature he talks little because he knows little. He does not understand English or French as spoken languages, and cannot have been much influenced by French authors, for "he hardly knew of their existence." Of Shakspere he knows nothing, and of Goethe (indeed, of anything German) he is no admirer. "His self-devotion seems almost to have blinded his eyes to merit in others." Of course he is at the opposite pole from Björnsen, whose son, by the way, married Ibsen's daughter. This circumstance has not brought the parents any nearer together in literary matters, Björnsen declaring emphatically of one of Ibsen's plays, "Oh, that is a piece I can't stand—entirely pessimistic and useless; not the kind of thing we want at all. It won't do anybody any good." Ibsen, it seems, was reluctant to believe that Shakspere still "held the boards" in the United States and England. A most unusual piece of writing is W. J. McGee's description of the various stages of death by thirst, founded on observation in the Western desert. "Thirst in the Desert" will be found of interest by lovers of imaginative literature, as some of its most terrible description recalls strikingly portions of "The Rhyme of the Ancient Mariner." "Shall We Still Read Greek Tragedy?" is a valuable article by Prof. Thomas Dwight Goodell, who protests against Shakspere being taken as "the norm of perfection, by which the world's drama is to be judged"; but he himself gives a powerful proof of the hold Shakspere has upon the Anglo-Saxon mind by endeavoring to draw a parallel between the Greek chorus and the secondary characters in such plays as "Hamlet" and "Romeo and Juliet."

—"England and Germany" is the subject of an article in *Harper's*, by Sidney Whitman, who knows both countries better than most of those who write about them. He points out that the feeling of contempt for everything German so commonly met with in England is nothing new. In 1825 Gen. Sir C. J. Napier speaks of finding "the people of every part of Germany stupid, slow, hard animals," without "even so much tact as to chat well." "Honor to Cæsar," he adds, "for killing so many of them." To-day an English journalistic critic, writing of a second visit to Germany, speaks of "dirty, dusty, nasty-smelling, unromantic Germany." Mr. Whitman points out that the English do not now write in this way of the French, though, if the record were searched, passages about "Johnny Crapaud" could be found which would prove that the French, too, have been at times pretty well exposed by John Bull. Mr. Whitman thinks that this sort of contemptuous abuse of one country by another cannot be found in German papers, books, or periodicals. He might have gone further and declared that nowhere on the continent of Europe is violent contempt for foreigners, or the expression of it, considered well-bred. The newspapers are introducing it where they can, but its native soil is Anglo-Saxon. It comes with the English and with us from a real belief in our superiority, not to this or that nation, but to the whole world, and from an abiding conviction that we can "lick" it. Owing to this fact, as soon as our interests clash with any particular set of foreigners, whether they happen to be German, or Spanish, or French foreigners, we frankly explain to them that we really despise them from the bottom of our souls; that they are boors, pirates, or monkeys, and that it is only our generosity and long-suffering meekness which prevents our "wiping them off the face of the earth." This may not be urbane, and Europeans do not think it is, but it is our way, and it accounts in part for a great many misunderstandings, such as that between England and Germany, which Mr. Whitman attempts to analyze. One of the most curious features of it is that the English are nowadays fond of inquiring why they are disliked on the Continent; and in the United States we are always overcome with wonder if we are told that our manners and our press do not lead foreigners to love us. Mr. Worthington C. Ford, the statistician, has a temperate article on "Commercial Aspects of the Panama Canal," in which he reaches the conclusion that the canal will be a "convenience," but not a "necessity," and that "the commercial interests of the United States in any event are of even less importance than the interests of Europe." The only noticeable illustrations in the number are Joseph Pennell's six sketches in an article about bicycling, and Frederick Remington's novel pictures of "Cavalry Tactics on the Plains." The snap-shots in the opening article, exhibiting an African buffalo in its death-throes, are surely too redolent of the slaughter-house to be admitted to a family magazine.

—The leading illustrated articles in the *Century* are on "A Pennsylvania Colliery Village." The first, describing "a polygot community," is by Henry Edward Rood; the second, by Jay Hambidge, gives "an artist's impression of the colliery region." Both together do not add much to our knowledge of the subject, but it is gratifying to know that, notwithstanding the tragedy of last year at Lattimer, there is ground for believing that there has been some improvement in twenty years. The period of the "Molly Maguires," when a sort of *mafia* held sway, has passed away, and there is something like law in the coal regions, though certainly not enough. The community still holds life pretty cheap, and, as has been often observed, there is no way to draw an indictment—or at any rate secure a conviction under an indictment drawn—against a whole community. Nor will even government by injunction prevent the private use of stilettoes, stones, and pistols at christenings and weddings, when it is the sense of the guests that they should be used, and when, if trouble subsequently arises, there are always witnesses to be found who will swear that all concerned were ten miles away at the time of the fracas. A sort of criminal Trust exists for the purpose of assisting members when accused of crime. One thing is made very plain—that nine-tenths of the "oppression" from which the miners suffer is connected with the difficulty they find in not using up their credit at the company's store for wages; it comes from their own want of thrift, and not from the cruelty of capitalists, who really do very little for them one way or the other, beyond furnishing them with a job. The rest is their own work, but, like so many of their fellow-creatures, a miner is inclined to attribute whatever measure of success he attains to himself, but to impute all losses and disasters and failures to others. What is done is done by Labor; what goes wrong is the fault of Capital. "Heroes of the Life-Saving Service," by Gustav Kobbé, is the latest contribution to the "Heroes of Peace" series. The stories of self-sacrifice in the work of rescuing life along the coast are a marvellous proof of the capacity for endurance and fortitude latent in man. Comparing the anecdotes with stock stories of heroism in battle, one cannot help wondering whether in process of time the universal delight in glory through carnage and homicidal patriotism may not be replaced by a gentler courage; it is certainly not beyond the bounds of belief that mankind should come to recognize that there is a great deal of humbug in military heroism. Fifty years ago it was supposed to be the mission of American democracy to produce heroes of peace.

—So much has been written about the "New Sayings" of Christ that many readers will be interested in the Rev. Henry Van Dyke's poem in *Scribner's* called "The Toiling of Felix," designed to throw light on one of them. It is an elaborate legend, in ballad form, with a prelude and envoy, on the theme,

> "Raise the stone and thou shalt find me; cleave the wood, and there am I."

The meaning given to the saying is that the secret of finding Christ lies in faithful work or drudgery. Such a reading excludes any more supersensual and imaginative rendering; but this is the privilege of exegesis. The pictures in Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's "Story of the Revolution" continue to be one of the most attractive features of the magazine; the text will bear a little revision here and there before it appears as a book. For instance, is it not rhetorically a mistake to say of Frederick the Great

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that he was "not only a great man, but a clear-sighted and efficient one"? Would it be correct to say of Washington that he was not only a good man, but a man of considerable rectitude, or of Solomon, that he not only was a wise man, but was considered by his friends and admirers to have a good deal of sense? Mr. Brander Matthews has an entertaining essay on "The Conventions of the Drama," which very cleverly demolishes scenic and "clothes" realism, partly by indirection. Mr. Matthews's thesis is not that realism is a bad thing—this nobody can successfully maintain—but that the art of acting is based on a series of conventions, which are known to all concerned to be the negation of reality. We agree beforehand that a passageway between flat paper walls shall be a street, and that ten men shall be an army, and the acting does the rest. More than this, experience shows that if we attempt to do away with the conventions, and substitute imitation, the illusion is actually impaired. A curious instance of the readiness with which a new convention may be introduced is found in the discovery that an audience will accommodate itself to actors representing a play in two different languages at the same time. Thus, Booth acted *Iago*, speaking English, with Devrient as a German *Othello*, while Frau Methua-Schiller played *Desdemona*, speaking English, except when she addressed *Othello*, to whom she always spoke German.

—Prof. Wrong's annual 'Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada' (The University of Toronto: Published by the Librarian) has entered its second year with increased bulk and a high standard of merit. The average length of articles is considerably less than before, for we find on comparison that while the number of pages is about one-fifth greater, the number of subjects treated has nearly doubled. Two facts will help to account for this difference. In the first place, fewer works of importance appeared in 1897 than in 1895-96 (and 1895 was drawn upon in the opening review). Secondly, the bibliographical search has on this occasion been very thorough, and thus many fugitive pieces are mentioned which deserve no more than the passing notice they receive. As for the literature itself, the falling off in point of quality from 1895-96 is noticeable in several large departments, particularly so in all that relates to French Canada. Dr. Drummond's 'Habitant,' which was issued in December, has made a great sale, but, whatever may be its value to the historian of the future, it cannot redeem the province of Quebec from a year of sterility in historical composition. On the other hand, interest in geographical discussion has been active. The longest papers in the present series relate, respectively, to the Cabot voyages and to westward migration, the one finding its text in nine and the other in three titles. The index shows evidence of the care taken to secure a complete survey. Lives from the 'National Dictionary of Biography,' historical novels, and even slight articles in the current magazines are remembered. Prof. Wrong continues to permit the members of his staff to avow their identity or not. The tendency, however, seems to be setting towards anonymous contribution. While pointing out the fact that the historical material in sight seems to be thinner than usual, we must not neglect to give Canada credit for economic progress. The record of industrial advance falls within the scope of Prof. Wrong's project, and among other useful notices he has been able to secure from Dr. George Dawson a sketch of historical events in the Yukon District. While Canada's gold fields may prove a doubtful blessing, there is no denying the immediate interest of Klondike news from an authority who can give it at first hand. "The man who has been there" is often suspect, but, with the possible exception of Mr. W. Ogilvie, no returned prospector will be listened to with better attention than the Director of the Canadian Geological Survey. We fully recognize the merit of Prof. Wrong's publication, and feel sure that it will react favorably on historical studies in the Dominion. It should also be stated that the name of Mr. H. H. Langton, Librarian of the University of Toronto, appears on the title-page as that of assistant editor.

—Prof. Cunningham, in his 'Alien Immigrants in England' (Macmillan), has opened, rather than occupied, a new field in English social history. In the space at his disposal he has been able only to provide an introduction to the subject, which, while fairly adequate for the middle ages, is a mere outline for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. One rises from this sketch vividly impressed with the contribution made by alien immigrants to the industrial education of the English people. Almost every step of the transition from the sparsely settled agricultural frontier-community life of the middle ages to the industrial and commercial supremacy of the past century has been taken with the help or under the guidance of aliens. New processes of manufacture, new methods of management, and wholly new industries were continually introduced either by voluntary immigrants or by religious or political refugees. French Huguenots were the financial backers of the "glorious Revolution" of 1688. Their friends declared, in 1709, that they had invested more than £2,000,000 in the public funds, about £500,000 being in the newly established Bank of England. One must regret that the author has confined his attention so exclusively to the industrial side of the influence of the aliens as almost to ignore their contribution to the intellectual progress of the country and to the diffusion of English ideas on the Continent. If Huguenot capitalists contributed to the triumph of civil liberty in England, it was also a Huguenot historian, Rapin de Thoyras, who revealed to Europe the connected story of the rise of the English state in the best general history of England that had been written up to that time. Again, after another century of development, it was the Swiss exile Delolme who produced the best treatise of the age on the English Constitution. Examples need not be multiplied. There is plenty of material for a most instructive chapter in the history of English civilization.

—The decease of the Great Prime Father of Korea, usually known as the Tai Wen Kun, removes from the peninsular politics of the weakest state in the Far East its most impressive figure. Indirectly and unintentionally he was the means of opening the hermit kingdom to the world's notice and commerce. A telegram to the Foreign Office in Tokio, from the Japanese Minister in Seoul, announced that the patient, who had been ill during several months, died at 7 P. M. on February 22. A blood relative to the King Hung Chong, who was succeeded by Chul Chong (who died in youth, January 15, 1864, and without issue), the Tai Wen Kun made himself virtual ruler of the kingdom when his second son was nominated King. Hitherto indifferent to politics, he became, in spite of the three royal widows living and the powerful Min clan, a true mayor of the palace. A rabid hater of Christianity, foreigners, and any progress which meant deviation from Confucianism and Korean precedents, he put down numerous insurrections with blood and iron. He lured the converts of the French priests to their ruin, and is believed to have put no fewer than ten thousand of them to torture and death. His high-handed proceedings brought the fleets of France, the United States, Japan, and Russia into Korean waters, with resultant battle and bloodshed by at least three of these Powers. His career as intriguer, assassin, reactionary, foiler of the unscrupulous plots of the unsleeping Min clan, to whom the Queen belonged, almost passes belief and reads more like fiction. In 1884, Li Hung Chang felt it necessary to deport the old gentleman to China for a couple of years. His last triumph was the killing and cremation by kerosene of Queen Min through Japanese ruffians, whom he led into the palace. He was a typical product of that old Korea which is as surely passing away as the old Japan has done. In his later days he had overcome most of his anti-foreign prejudices, gladly utilizing dynamite for his special purposes.

BODLEY'S FRANCE.

France. By John Edward Courtenay Bodley. Two volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Mr. Bodley takes care to have it understood that he is neither a holiday tourist just back from France, nor a compiler from the books of others. By way of fitting himself to criticise a nation which he calls "the most complicated product of civilization on the face of the globe," he went to live in its midst. "I came to France in May, 1890, and wrote the last lines of these volumes more than seven years later, having in the interval not spent seven weeks away from French soil, as I had soon perceived that uninterrupted residence in the land was the only means of accomplishing my self-imposed task." Life in Paris, numerous *voyages d'études* (which were extended to Algiers), and the tenantcy of a château in the Brie were among the incidents of this period. Mr. Bodley has enjoyed a further advantage of great value—personal intercourse with eminent Frenchmen. Renan, Taine, Clémenceau, Comte Albert de Mun, and Mgr. Freppel were friends worth having at the outset of such an inquiry, and ever since he has moved up and down through the social strata, from members of the Institute and parliamentary leaders to peasants and shopkeepers. We are led to speak of his qualifications by the insistence which he lays on his method and means of study. While a sensitive and shrinking modesty might have refrained from giving all the details he offers, it is clear that Mr. Bodley undertook a heavy task seriously.

His "capital subject," according to the preface, "is Political France after a Century of Revolution." To state this in other words, our author is more occupied

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with the Third Republic than with social traits and usage. But as the present form of government can be fitly considered only in the light of French vicissitude since 1789, he becomes, perforce, an interpreter of past politics for above a hundred years. Of the four books which follow his long introduction, that on "The Revolution and Modern France" stands first both in order and in general interest. The remaining three, though principally devoted to an account of public functions as they exist to-day, are also flavored with a dash of historical philosophy. They are entitled "The Constitution and the Chief of the State," "The Parliamentary System," and "Political Parties." By defining Mr. Bodley's real scope we at the same time limit the possible range of our comment.

One cannot mistake his two main conclusions. The first is that the régime which was set up after Sedan and confirmed during the presidency of Marshal MacMahon, has failed to bestow pure administration and to enlist national pride. Let alone affection, it has not even attracted the respect which an example of republican virtue would have claimed. The second is, that, amid the incessant change about them, Napoleonic institutions have stood firm and have wedded France to centralization. There is much in the book besides the proof of these points; but, taking our cue from Mr. Bodley's own lips, we shall consider them most prominently.

The Third Republic, he argues, is condemned by the political pessimism of its citizens, aristocrats and workingmen alike. We can illustrate his position by a contrast between the First Republic in its latter days and modern France. Between 1789 and 1798 many political idols were broken, and yet the French were interested in their public affairs. Despite the Terror, even despite the Assignat and Fructidor, they had hope. If the politicians were inept, what, after Campio Formio, could not be hoped from the army? Presently, the Directory fell, and the General for some years justified the confidence which the nation placed in him by conniving at the revolution of Brumaire. One gathers from Mr. Bodley's pages that France esteems her politicians very little higher in 1898 than she did a hundred years ago. The pessimism is blacker now because no martial glory is in immediate prospect. The parliamentary system, after a fair trial, has disappointed expectation; the masses are apathetic, and to chauvinists the Exposition of 1900 will be a poor equivalent for Marengo. Sufferers in the last stage of phthisis occasionally get relief from a mild, damp climate; only it is a pity that they should ever reach the stage where dry air is bad for them. So with politics. In certain cases it may be as well that citizens should not take the trouble to cast their votes; but one feels convinced that the body politic is consumptive when this symptom becomes pronounced. Mr. Bodley testifies that France is in a bad way by speaking thus of the electoral torpor:

> "It might be thought that the wholesale abstention from the polls of hard-working, self-denying, and often highly civilized members of a society whose political representation sorely needs sanitation, is an evident evil. It would be so in a community which had adopted with the parliamentary system its necessary corollary, the party system; but, as things are in France, it is perhaps for the public good that so large a proportion voluntarily refrains from politics."

We may ascribe the common use of "je ne m'occupe pas de politique" to absence of the party system, or to that widespread indifference which M. Anatole France has observed and mentions in a passage quoted by Mr. Bodley from 'L'Orme du Mail': "Public opinion, which was a reality under the Monarchy and the Empire, has no existence in our time, and the people, once ardent and generous, are now incapable either of love or of hatred, of admiration or of contempt." Thus Mr. Bodley detects among the French a want of political hope which is disclosed by cynical distrust in the value of universal suffrage, and he inclines to think that, as things are, it is "for the public good that so large a proportion voluntarily refrains from politics."

In conjunction with this stolid attitude of the masses, we must place as a bad symptom the vindictive hatred of politicians. Their corruption has been well known since the Panama trials; their savage slashing at each other is equally scandalous. Mr. Bodley sees on the one hand several thousand gladiators contesting violently for the palms of place and emolument; on the other, several million listless, however "free and independent," electors. The most famous and bitter contest of recent years was waged in the Var, when M. Clémenceau, driven to the wall, fought with a dash which had often enabled him to overthrow ministries. "But though, to assure his defeat, the forces of the boulevards were transported to Provence, the Department, which for a week was the talk of Europe, entered so tepidly into the fray that only one-half of its voters went to the poll." To atone for popular languor, Deputies and other candidates run to an excess of activity. Hence the scurrilous tone of newspapers and the long campaigns of abuse. Mr. Bodley adapts the phrase *homo homini lupus* to make it read *Gallus Gallo lupus*. Reprisals, either by arms or slander, have been the rule ever since Carrier proclaimed that the Jacobins would turn France into a cemetery rather than not regenerate it after their own fashion. On Ferry's death in 1893, M. Clovis Hugues gave as an obituary the Communist view of the late Senator: "Yesterday all-powerful, to-day Jules Ferry is but a corpse which the people have the right to execrate, and to-morrow the worms will eat him just as he had us eaten up by the Versailles troops in 1871." Should the typical Communist be called an *exagéré* like Hébert, Mr. Bodley, after seven years' study of the French press, might rejoin that the question of rancor is merely one of degree. "There is a nation to the members of which Frenchmen are more revengeful than to the Germans, more irascible than to Italians, more unjust than to English. It is to the French that Frenchmen display animosity more savage, more incessant, and more inequitable than to the people of any other race."

Fearing that passages like the last might have the ring of diatribe, Mr. Bodley declares that he is less severe than candid Frenchmen are. He claims warrant for every stricture he has made in a harsher criticism from some local source. For instance, according to M. Jules Roche, an ex-Minister: "We are the worst-governed country in the world—or, I will say, so as to hurt no one's feelings, one of the very worst." Despite his sense of republican shortcomings, Mr. Bodley will not allow the truth of this charge. On the contrary, he observes, "I should be perplexed to mention three nations which on the whole are better governed than France."

We now reach the second matter we have already emphasized, Mr. Bodley's praise of the institutions that were created under the First Empire. "The well-organized daily life of the nation, which is but little affected by politics, is a striking sign of the excellence of Napoleon's administrative structure." But if the present democracy is a failure, and France owes her chief gratitude to a despotism, what becomes of the legacy which the First Revolution is vaunted to have left? Are Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, once an ideal, at present a reproach? Mr. Bodley derives evident satisfaction from using these picturesque watchwords as a standard whereby to measure French failings. He will allow the Revolution no praise for the political salvation of France, because that is still unattained. He implacably traces to its turmoil "a psychological or moral result," restlessness, which keeps the waters always agitated and muddy. Since 1789 the country "has never yet found a political government to soothe and weld together the elements unsettled by the great upheaval." Taine, from whom Mr. Bodley draws much—if not in actual detail, at least in disenchantment of outlook—might have taken a similar tone about constitutional matters. He would have disagreed with his admirer's estimate of Napoleon's part in harvesting the good influences of the Revolution. We remember to have seen shortly after Plon Plon's death a manifesto in favor of Prince Victor Bonaparte. The strongest point in it was that France is undoubtedly republican, but that she needs an imperial head. Mr. Bodley instances the gold coins of the First Empire from 1804 to 1807. "On their face is engraved 'Napoléon Empereur,' and on the reverse, 'République Française.'" This seeming inconsistency, he urges, may point towards the right issue of France from her political difficulties. Let her cease to imitate British institutions, which are alien to the Celtic spirit. She "should organize her own, under an appropriate headship, and thus an Emperor, as the chief of a Republic, far from being an anomaly, might under favoring circumstances solve the unravelled problem of the century."

An English critic would put himself in a very false position were he to champion the claims of any French pretender, and we must explain that Mr. Bodley means the "strong man" in general, not a member of the Napoleonic dynasty. He judges the Second Empire more leniently than many would, but he likewise spares a kind word to the July Monarchy. His real enthusiasm is reserved for the founder of the code and the administrative system under which France lives through all changes of leadership. He believes that the French have accepted centralization finally and—considering national temperament—to good purpose. It means stability in the midst of experiment, and its necessity can be appreciated only when one tries to imagine the state without it. "If the Napoleonic fabric of centralization, which has survived all the vicissitudes of the century, were demolished, it would bring down with it every institution in France, with havoc more ruinous than that of 1789; and to build another structure, another Napoleon would be needed."

In a country which is subject to sudden political change, the constitutional forms,

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while they may be important, are less important to the world at large than the spirit and tendencies of the time. We have, therefore, tried to indicate the chief impressions which remain after a careful reading of Mr. Bodley's book, instead of fastening upon points which arise from his description of President, Chambers, and parties. We ought not, however, to dismiss the subject before we have given a fuller idea of his purpose and contents. As to aim, he is simply a scientific inquirer like Arthur Young, De Tocqueville, and Mr. Bryce. He has no belief that he can reconcile French and English, because, where types are clear-cut and aggressive, fuller knowledge but breeds the conviction that genuine sympathy is impossible. This mental attitude reacts well on his tone and temper. Where a man believes that he is an agent of public conciliation, he may even stoop to flatter that good may come. Mr. Bodley is saved from paying court to the French nation by a knowledge of the fact that the cause of peace and national fraternity does not hang upon his pen. Still, he deserves credit for his candor. After accepting kindness from so many classes of people, the truth could not always have been easy to speak.

Mr. Bodley presents a much smaller number of topics under 'France' than Mr. Bryce took up under 'The American Commonwealth,' and his essay is of narrower extent. Having already cited the titles of his four large divisions, we may state that the first examines the ideals of 1792 in the light of their fulfilment; that the second and third centre about such organic features as legislative and executive power; and that the fourth, with its eight subdivisions, enters fully into the group system of political parties. We are unable to single out any one heading for special notice, but we shall observe that Mr. Bodley regards constitutional matters with an eye to their flesh-and-blood purport, and not at all as metaphysical abstractions. He sometimes suggests De Tocqueville, never Sieyès.

One must distinguish between the Third Republic and the people of the country. Mr. Bodley's interest in the vital side of politics becomes plain whenever he speaks of the French themselves. Though disparaging a form of government, he admires many traits of the national character, and sets France far before Germany in her hold on the attention of mankind. The corrupt politicians, the outrageous press, the equally vapid and mischievous life of fashionable society are on the surface; let one break ground a little, and he will discover a hard-working army, a devout clergy, an austere and laborious university. Mr. Bodley never wearies of magnifying the Institute, whether in the case of individual members or of the whole body, and he seems to detect a saving remnant where one would least expect it—in the Chamber of Deputies. The Left Centre with Whig sentiments and a certain amount of *sang froid* preserves the best traditions of bourgeois rule during the reign of Louis Philippe. Only a small quota of just men was demanded from the cities of the plain, and followers of the late Léon Say will perhaps give a good account of themselves should the French Legislature ever develop into a political Sodom.

We shall add a final word concerning Mr. Bodley's value as a critic and as a writer. With a good command of historical and literary allusion to supplement careful research and local knowledge, one can approach anything short of the Eastern Question in a mood of moderate confidence. We give Mr. Bodley credit for the virtues just catalogued, and also for the wish to put matters in a fair light. If he has a bias, it is towards aristocracy, taking that word in its original meaning, taking it in the sense which Aristotle contemplated when contrasting it with oligarchy. According to the poet, Merlin was amused at Vivien's foolish effrontery—

> "And smiling as a master smiles at one
> That is not of his school, nor any school,
> But that where blind and naked Ignorance
> Delivers brawling judgments unashamed
> On all things all day long, he answered her."

A mage may smile at a fair maiden, but it implies a fund of philosophy to accept thus the antics of the self-seeking ignoramus in politics, and Mr. Bodley, a good deal put out with French office-hunters, becomes paradoxical in limiting the significance of the Revolution. At one extreme we may place Lord Beaconsfield's epigram that there are only two facts in history, the Trojan War and the French Revolution. Surely the truth lies somewhere between this "smart" speech and Mr. Bodley's more carefully considered judgment:

"The best that can be said of the French Revolution is that, just when civilization was on the point of making history colorless, it burst forth and produced for the student and the artist a collection of pictures and documents thrilling and pathetic, grandiose and revolting, such as no epoch of antiquity or modern times has supplied. But, to provide intellectual pleasure for the cultivated, it is hardly worth while that millions of the human race should have lamentably perished before their term."

The reader will see that such an estimate reveals a particular attitude of mind towards the ideas for which the movement stands, and that many parts of a work on modern France will be conditioned thereby.

Although he connects the 'Histoire Parliamentaire' with the names of "Roux and Bouchez," and says that not one out of a million travellers in Switzerland knows the name of the actual President, Mr. Bodley is generally accurate and unexaggerated in statement. A wealth of anecdotal and biographical reference makes his chapters pleasant and lively to read. Claiming our right to find fault, we may suggest that much reiteration could have been saved by a more compact arrangement of leading points. The style has been closely looked after, and an abundance of neat phrases awaits the amateur of terse speech. In this respect the work is so creditable that we wonder how the following sentence could have escaped revision:

"On the former [highway] stands the village of Boissy St. Léger, where Madame de Staël, arriving from Switzerland on November 9, 1799, made her last change of horses before entering Paris, just as Barras passed on his way to Gros Bois hard by, the château then occupied by him, but soon to be given to another son of the Revolution, Berthier, afterwards Prince de Wagram, whose descendant still lives there."

While differing from Mr. Bodley on certain fundamental questions, we can freely avow that he has not spent his seven years in vain.

NETTLESHIP'S REMAINS.

Philosophical Lectures and Remains of Richard Lewis Nettleship, Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford. Edited, with a biographical sketch, by A. C. Bradley, Professor of English Literature in the University of Glasgow, formerly Fellow and Lecturer of Balliol College, Oxford, and G. R. Benson of Balliol College, Oxford. 2 volumes, with portraits. Macmillan.

A confusion between Lewis Nettleship and his elder brothers, the late Corpus Professor of Latin, Henry Nettleship, the distinguished consulting oculist, Edward Nettleship, and John Nettleship, the well-known animal painter, is possible among us, to whom Lewis must be known, if at all, by the little that he actually published: (1) The Arnold Prize Essay on 'The Normans in Italy and Sicily' (1873); (2) "An Italian Study of Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress" (*Macmillan's Magazine*, November, 1878); (3) "The Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato" (written in 1879 for Mr. Evelyn Abbott's 'Hellenica,' Rivingtons, 1880); (4) an article on T. H. Green's philosophy (in the *Contemporary* for May, 1882); and (5) the Memoir of the late Professor T. H. Green in Nettleship's edition of that philosopher's works (Longmans, 1888). The need of such an explanation is due chiefly to the disaster on Mont Blanc in August, 1892, which abruptly closed his life before he had yet completed his forty-sixth year. To those whom personal friendship enables to read between the lines of Prof. Bradley's sketch, the brief memoir prefixed to these volumes will seem a model of what such an account should be; but, for others, Prof. Bradley might well have attempted a connected survey of Lewis Nettleship's interpretation of Plato. Also, by a little different treatment of his correspondence, and one or two extracts from Nettleship's unprinted MSS. on 'The Normans in Italy,' Prof. Bradley could probably have given the general reading public a more telling picture and a fuller suggestion of his really noteworthy genius for the pleasures of genuine comradeship with his pupils. Though the biography here given will be found exceptionally interesting, its effect upon many will be that of something too esoteric for the uninitiated.

This defect is all the more to be regretted because the sense of an imperfect contact with Nettleship's personal and uncommon quality can hardly be removed by reading what our editors have to give us from Nettleship himself. All of these Lectures and Remains come to us in an esoteric shape, and not as Nettleship would have prepared them for publication. The first volume, for which Prof. Bradley is responsible, comprises at the outset five notable though extremely brief papers on Immortality, Pleasure, Spirit, Individuality, and the Atonement. These papers make Nettleship most nearly accessible to "the general." They are untechnical discussions of topics of vital interest, modern difficulties, religious and ethical, illustrated by an insight which is not less but more of our own day because perfected by a lifelong study of Plato. The next item consists in accounts of travel and extracts from Nettleship's correspondence with six of his friends. Then follow Lectures on Logic, compiled chiefly from notes made by pupils. The volume closes with portions of a long projected but never completed book on Plato. Mr. Godfrey Benson's second volume is entirely occupied by his compilation (also from pupils' notes) of Nettleship's much frequented Balliol Lectures on the 'Republic' of Plato. Mr. Benson has been extremely successful in the performance of a difficult task, but he could

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neither hope nor attempt to alter the off-hand manner used by Nettleship in lecturing, but never tolerated by him in anything intended for publication. His Lectures on the 'Republic' were unwritten; each year they were different, and were always growing better. Those who have heard the lectures of Prof. Alfred Croiset in Paris will have some idea of the effect achieved by Nettleship's conscientiously prepared and finished improvisations. Something to give greater pungency and relief to Prof. Bradley's picture of Lewis Nettleship could perhaps have been gained by inquiry among his occasional correspondents.

"I am afraid circumstances are too much for me," he wrote in 1886 to an American pupil, "and it is no good promising to write regularly to my friends. I still enjoy producing a letter when I have the time and the mood; but the longer one goes without seeing people, the harder it is to think about them continuously, and the less common material there is for intercommunication. And so I find my correspondence has dwindled down to one or two people, and even with those threatens to become intermittent. . . . I am still a Balliol Tutor, and though I live in a house with my mother, I spend most of my time and energy in College. I sometimes try to think how it has changed since your time [1878]. It *has* changed, no doubt, and yet it is very hard to put one's finger on the precise points. There is a good deal of interest now among the men in what they call 'Social Questions,' which I think is healthy, though of course it has its aberrations."

A very different but an equally characteristic side of Nettleship shows in a letter to the same correspondent, written from Drontheim, in August, 1881:

"I have just returned from a month's struggle in the wilderness with the Norwegian devil, and have been trying to work at Plato in latitude 69. In my journeyings I met a Mrs. —— and Miss ——, who said they knew you. They were very friendly to me, and Mrs. ——, under a complication of asthma, rheumatism, and general disease, displayed a vigor such as I never see except in your countrywomen."

This letter closes with a reminiscence which speaks volumes for the easy and almost boyish intimacy that subsisted between Lewis Nettleship and his pupils: "Heavens, how it all comes back again—those morning 'bathes' with you, and little ——and——enormous in the sunrise." In the earliest letter of this same correspondence, written on Christmas Day, 1878, Nettleship announces the death of a common friend, also his former pupil—one who was so passionately attached to him that he refused to leave Oxford without giving Nettleship certain keepsakes.

"Poor D——p," exclaims Nettleship, "I have seen nothing of him since last winter, when R—— and V—— and he and I dined together in Town. Then I had one or two letters, and since the summer . . . I have known nothing about him. I am glad to think that I have got his clock and 'jorrocks' to remind me of him, though I don't know any one whom I should be so little likely to forget. One cannot help feeling that he and M——m were two as representative Oxford men as one could find; the one rejecting all the obvious good of the place, the other drinking it all in; and yet both meeting on a common ground in something which could not be expressed in class-lists, but which yet is of the essence of Oxford. It is sad work, these young deaths."

Passing then to the American phase of the "Greek Question," Nettleship goes on to say:

"I always hope that America may eventually help to shew us old-fashioned people the way to reconcile classical education with modern life. The problem in England is appallingly difficult. So many elements other than purely educational ones enter into it that it is almost impossible to get people to look at it straight. . . . The difficulty seems to be to find methods for gradually diverting the enormous wealth and talent which are now spent on teaching it into other channels. And there is always a danger of playing into the hands of the mere βάναυσοι, if one is too much in a hurry to diminish the demands of classics. I quite believe myself that the real interests of classical literature are sufficient to guarantee that the most cultivated minds will always study it; and I don't see why many of the ideas which it contains should not come to be a real power in modern life; there are certainly signs of this. But the more this is felt to be true, the less it seems to me will able men be ready to apply these literatures as mere mechanical contrivances for extracting a certain amount of effort out of the average boy. Nor can I think that it is natural for any boy to begin to get his first ideas from books which can have to him little more meaning than counters."

Here Nettleship, for special reasons, puts the case against the classics; a rather more adequate suggestion of his views may be gathered from an extract given by Prof. Bradley (i., 85), and can be gleaned from his memoir of T. H. Green. Indeed, his deliberate mind on this subject is indicated in the 'Hellenica' (p. 171), where, after admitting that we cannot bring back days like those in which systems were constructed by discussion in the streets of Athens or the gardens of the Academy, he declares that it is "all the more important that the few men in each generation who might have taken part in such discussions should make the works of the great thinkers of the world not a dead letter, but a living voice, by entering into their spirit, interpreting their speech, and carrying on their thought."

How well he himself ended by accomplishing this most difficult task appears repeatedly in these volumes; nowhere more strikingly than in his account of the 'Philebus' (i., 325 ff.). After mentioning the inevitable irritation caused in a modern reader by the drift of this Dialogue, he attributes it to "the length and rapidity" of Plato's "mental stride," and to "the comparatively unoccupied state of the ground which he had to traverse." And then he adds: "It would take a modern philosopher much more time and trouble to pass from an analysis of heat or of itching to the conception of a divine mind or of an absolute good." But he finds our chief stumbling-block in "the fusion (some will say the confusion), already noticed in the 'Gorgias,' of the scientific and moral aspects of life." Another instance of our author's gift as a "revivalist" of Platonic thought may be found in his remark ('Hellenica,' p. 125) that "if the Duke of Wellington could say that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing-fields at Eton, we need not be surprised at Plato when he speaks of children 'receiving the spirit of law through their music.'" Again he says (ii., 141): "Plato's belief that changes in the fashion of popular music are signs of great political change, seems exaggerated merely because it is stated so simply. A modern writer would establish the connection between these things at greater length, but the idea is certainly not foreign to modern thought."

Lewis Nettleship spent his life piercing each year more completely through "the veil of conventional platitudes, pretentious antiquarianism, and sentimental finery" which obscures the modern eye in contemplating Plato. The study of his progress often has a dramatic interest like that of the gradual cementing of a friendship. Indeed, he himself has said, in speaking of the 'Republic': "Every great book has characteristics of its own, which have to be studied like the characteristics of a person" (i., 4). Pater went a step further, and said that the Platonic ideas were in some sense "persons to be known as persons must be, and to be loved for the perfections . . . of their being." Just how Nettleship worked out in his own mind this personal conception of the 'Republic' is suggested by his definition of it as "an ideal picture of the rise and fall of the human soul; its rise to its highest stage of development, and its fall to its lowest depth" (ii., 5).

At the close of this account of a great teacher, the real record of whose life must fatally remain inaccessible to the larger public, should stand words concerning him written by Prof. Bradley, and inscribed on the wall of Balliol College chapel, above the recently erected memorial of Jowett: "He loved great things, and thought little of himself; desiring neither fame nor influence, he won the devotion of men and was a power in their lives; and, seeking no disciples, he taught to many the greatness of the world and of man's mind."

Picturesque Sicily. By William Agnew Paton. Harper & Brothers. 1898. Pp. xii, 381.

In 1896 M. Gaston Vuillier published a sumptuous quarto on Sicily, the contents of which he had already given to the world in the pages of the *Tour du Monde*. Were it not that its price puts it beyond the reach of many modest purses, there would have been but little occasion for Mr. Paton's book, coming so soon as it does after its splendid predecessor. For a moment we were tempted to think that there was no occasion at all, and that Mr. Paton might have spared himself the trouble of writing. To show what we mean, we cite a passage from p. 152 of Vuillier:

"Lorsque l'empire byzantin tomba sous la domination musulmane, l'Albanie seule, soutenue par l'ardent patriotisme de Scanderbeg, lutta quelques années. En 1488, voyant leur perte inévitable, les Albanais résolurent d'abandonner leur patrie et leurs biens plutôt que de subir la loi du vainqueur. Ils demandèrent asile à Ferdinand d'Aragon, roi de Naples, qui les accueillit avec faveur et les fit passer en Sicile, où ils fondèrent les colonies de *Piana dei Greci, Palazzo-Adriano, Contessa* et *Mezzojuso*. Ils ont vécu là depuis, isolés, en pleine montagne, se transmettant pieusement de père en fils les coutumes de leur ancienne patrie et les superbes costumes des ancêtres."

On p. 137 of Paton one finds the following:

"When the Byzantine empire fell under the dominion of the Mussulmans, Albania alone, inspired by the ardent patriotism of Scanderbeg, continued for some years to offer effectual resistance to the power of her enemies. In 1488 A. D., overcome by overwhelming numbers, the Albanians resolved to abandon their unhappy country, at no matter what sacrifice of worldly goods, rather than submit to the oppression of their conquerors. Ferdinand of Aragon, King of Naples, received the Albanian ambassadors and showed them favor, and granted to their nation the privilege of founding in Sicily four colonies of exiled people, who crossed the seas, as did the later Pilgrim Fathers, seeking 'freedom to worship God' and liberty to manage their temporal affairs. Certain of these exiles settled in Sicily, at Piana dei Greci, Palazzo Adriano, Contessa, and at

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Mezzojuso. There these brave people made homes for themselves, and in the lonely valleys where they built their cities their descendants have continued to dwell, cherishing the traditions of an ancient race, preserving the manners and customs and regulating their living according to the habits and laws of their ancestors."

A little further on is another passage, in the description of the costumes of Piana dei Greci, which bears the same strange resemblance to a passage in Vuillier. There are, it is true, differences. In describing the clasp of the girdle of a wedding dress, Vuillier says that it is "ciselée," and he speaks again of its "ciselure." Mr. Paton's description reads like a free translation of Vuillier, except that he says the clasp is "engraved" instead of *ciselée*, and he speaks of its "repoussée work" instead of its *ciselure*. To be sure, there is a doubt permissible as to his knowing the precise signification of the words he employs.

Mr. Paton can scarcely be pleased at hearing that certain of his passages have been anticipated in so nearly identical a fashion. It seems like a waste of time to tell the same thing twice in the same words, and, besides, the first telling robs the second of its air of originality. We do not accuse him of appropriating what is not his: there is that happy touch about the Pilgrim Fathers—it gives relief to what might appear otherwise a vain repetition; his "lonely valleys" gives the other side of Vuillier's "en pleine montagne"; and then the quotation-marks enclosing "freedom to worship God" show a praiseworthy scrupulousness in the acknowledgment of borrowings.

And, to speak more seriously, we do not find that Mr. Paton has taken very much from Vuillier. In the first place, the two follow different lines in describing Sicily. Vuillier is a friend and disciple of Pitré, and, next to the account of places, it is the superstitions, the traditions, the folk-lore of Sicily that most interest him. Mr. Paton, after his own personal experiences (which, to one who knows Sicily, form the freshest and pleasantest part of his book) and his bits of topography, turns his attention, as was the way of the late Mr. Freeman, to history. And as his is the work of a simple tourist, it goes without saying that his history and statistics are given at second hand. There need be no quarrel with him on that score, so long as he chooses his authorities well, and in some way acknowledges his indebtedness. This he has quite sufficiently done except in the case of M. Vuillier, whom he has not mentioned, and of the late John Addington Symonds, for whose first name he invariably substitutes the initial T.

There are, however, two or three vexatious peculiarities in the book. The first that one notices is that the author almost invariably gives the Italian article with the names of streets, places, etc., *e. g.*, "On Il Corso Vittorio Emanuele, near Porta Nuova, is La Piazza del Duomo, to which Il Duomo di Palermo presents its right flank" (p. 59). He does this with such insistence that, when thoroughly exasperated by it, one is tempted to think that he knows but little Italian and has inordinate joy in the flavor of that little. Unhappily, the proof of this is not far to seek. A glance at a dictionary might have saved him from translating plum-trees into *carrubi* (p. 127), and a little more grammar would not have allowed him to substitute the third person indicative for the first (and more than once) in quoting the children who tell him they are dying of hunger. The Conca d'Oro changes its gender as often as he mentions it, article included. One wishes he would not talk about "una signora inglesa" and "una francesa," and one absolutely feels sorry for him in both his transcription and his translation of a sign over the door of a wine-shop. They are respectively as follows: "Sinchero il trovi sempre, e di valore, e avrai sana, la verita, e lieto il cuore," which, he says, "may be paraphrased, 'In wine are sincerity, valor, health, truth, and lightness of heart'" (p. 90)! It is no sin not to know Italian, but in such case it is an indiscretion to attempt to write it.

Of course, the errors and blunders that every tourist inevitably falls into are not wanting here, but, as they are mostly of slight moment, it is not necessary to enumerate such as we have marked. Do we not daily meet persons who have passed not months but years in Italy, and who still are constantly discovering the most astounding mare's-nests in Italian life and character? Alongside of the average *forestiere*, Mr. Paton appears of an almost meticulous accuracy. We could, however, wish that, besides such knowledge of the Italian and of the Sicilian dialect as are necessary to a real understanding of the people he is trying to judge, he had also been able to enrich his book with an adequate account of the monuments of architecture that are perhaps the chief glory of the country. Viollet-le-Duc went far towards accomplishing this service for its Greek temples, but there is room for a new work on that fusion of elements that resulted in a style of singular beauty and completeness, but which, confined to a narrow territory, has left very few examples of itself.

For the true lover of Sicily no description is sufficient which does not convey a sense of the exquisite poetry in which the Sicilian landscape is steeped—partly a result of moisture and partly also of the southern sun—where the subtle transitions of English and Dutch scenery and the tender melancholy of Venice are blended with something which is of none of these, but of Sicily alone. It is in landscape what in music is the tenor of which we say that it has tears in it. It is a merit of M. Vuillier's book that it suggests this charm. Mr. Paton may, however, be congratulated, after all exceptions have been taken, on a work that has been conscientiously put together, giving a fair enough representation of many aspects of the little world of Sicily, and that is pleasant to read. The appendices on the Mafia, on brigandage and the Sicilian question are, especially the first named, worth attention. The volume is a goodly one to look upon, and the illustrations, taken from photographs, are really good. It is only to be objected to them that they are uniformly spaced at intervals of eight pages, and that, as a consequence, they rarely coincide with the text they should supplement.

Historic Ornament: Treatise on Decorative Art and Architectural Ornament. By James Ward, author of 'The Principles of Ornament.' Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897. $3.00.

This is a useful book of reference, if for its illustrations alone. Four hundred and thirty-six of them scattered over four hundred and nine pages do not leave a very great deal of text for the reader, but what text there is, is extremely intelligible; at once simple and direct. Being so brief, the text has to deal in general principles boldly asserted, and cannot give much delicate hair-splitting in the way of the statement of half-truths and the refinements of critical examinations. A general proposition, being accepted as true, has to be stated as if it were always true, and the reader is left to his belief that no exceptions exist until he consults other and more critical works.

More than one-eighth of the whole book is devoted to prehistoric art. More than one-third is devoted to Egypt. Chaldea, ancient Persia, and the like, and the subject of Romanesque architecture and ornament is not reached until the three hundred and thirtieth page. We have then, necessarily, the most hurried treatment of the great mediæval styles; and finally, and most remarkable of all, the art of the Renaissance and of all the epochs that have succeeded that epoch is inadequately gone over in forty pages crowded with cuts. Whether this proportionate length and fulness of treatment of different epochs is the result of the author's preference does not certainly appear. It may be merely the result of a lack of care in laying out the work, or in a change of plan which has caused the cutting down of a much larger book to one of the present size. However that may be, there is but little to be got from the later pages, and it is hardly worth while to read in them about the revived classic styles. On the other hand, the treatment of the Phœnician and Chaldean art is good, considering the popular character of the book and the limited nature of the materials from which the author could make his compilations.

A great deal of space, relatively speaking, has been given to the mythological legends of the peoples whose art is treated of. Thus, there are many pages devoted to an account of the Greek and Græco-Roman deities, less with regard to the quality and character of the works of art supposed to represent those deities, their attributes and actions, than as to their purely literary legend. It seems to have been thought that all the information must be given together and within the same pair of covers, and that the reader who might wish to know about the Apollo Belvidere might feel slighted if he were not told all about Apollo that could be found in a mythological dictionary. To the student who desires information about Grecian decorative art, it is certainly irritating to find so little concerning the ornaments of the great times, and so much about Jupiter and his wives and children, Apollo and his various potentialities, nymphs, graces, and heroes. These personages have little to do with the decorative art of the Greeks; indeed, one has to abandon at once the idea that the title-page is accurately descriptive of a book which like this truly undertakes to treat of all the fine art of the periods in question, except the larger and more elaborate paintings, where such exist. As to the Greek and Græco-Roman gods, it is most uncritical, most inaccurate, to state, as it is stated here, that they are one and the same, and that Zeus may be treated indifferently under that name or as Jupiter. The existence in early Latin legend of gods of truly Italian origin, some of which were identified afterwards with Greek divinities, but others not so confused, is never suggested.

On the whole, however, the bold state-

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ments of general truths may be accepted as truthful enough, in the main; but that these general statements are treated as if they were universal in their application, is unfortunate and misleading. Thus, it is true that the Byzantine builders of the fifth century, and subsequent centuries, did wonderful things with the cupola or dome, and roofed many buildings in part by the use of that kind of vault; but to say (page 295) that "the timber-roofed and vaulted style of architecture now gave place to the dome," is to make a totally false statement. So the assumption that, in the earliest Christian buildings, paintings were used instead of sculpture, because of the religious objection to sculpture, which latter art was considered as identified with heathen worship, is wholly to ignore the use of paintings in heathen worship, and also to ignore the complete decay of the art of sculpture in Europe during the years just preceding the triumph of Latin Christianity. Such rash assertions might be culled from these pages by scores, but it would be to do injustice to the book, which is far more remarkable for the general accuracy of its statements, however hastily made, than for the erroneous boldness of a comparatively small proportion. The conclusion would seem to be that the author has used the best authorities in an intelligent way, but that the determination to make the book serve for easy reference, and for the use of hurried people consulting country libraries, has caused him to state as always true that which strikes him as true in the main. The moral is that the statement of these general truths is unsafe, except by a writer of real and profound knowledge of the subjects treated.

A certain carelessness of diction, as where Lazarus is said to be "represented as a mummy," and as where the statue of Zeus at Olympia is said to have been "made of, or probably covered over with, plates of ivory and gold (Chryselephantine); the ivory plates covered the exposed parts of the flesh," may be noted. There are many such instances, but in the second of the two above given, there is reached, perhaps, the culmination of careless wording. The uninstructed reader might ask in vain what is meant by the word Chryselephantine, enclosed in the parenthesis and floating in the sentence to which it cannot be made to belong, and he would wonder what kind of protection or clothing the ivory plates might be to the "exposed part of the flesh." The fact that the word Chryselephantine is an adjective, and the fact that the modern archæologists infer that the nude parts of the statue were made of ivory, and the clothed, or draped, parts, of gold, with or without enamelling, needs, of course, to be stated; but it is not stated in the above or in other sentences of this description.

Different passages in the text point to the appearance of a second volume, and a star on the back indicates that another volume will appear with two stars. Moreover, a sentence in the preface says that in the succeeding volume "the various divisions of the industrial arts and crafts will be treated in their historical developments." Final conclusions as to the value of the work should, therefore, be deferred until the appearance of the second volume.

Christina Rossetti: A Biographical and Critical Study. By Mackenzie Bell. With six portraits and facsimiles. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1898.

It is easy to imagine that another writer would have done much better with Mr. Bell's materials than he has done with them; but, at the same time, it is evident that his materials were not of the kind that lend themselves heartily to the making of a good biography. We may trust an admiration so great as his for Miss Rossetti to have left no stone unturned which might conceal some item of importance to her memory and fame; but his utmost care and patience have made late discovery of few precious things. Her life was hardly less recluse than that of her sister Francesca, who entered an Anglican religious house. Its events were her poems, and of these Mr. Bell has not written with any critical perception of their quality. It is true that she had two offers of marriage, but these have been treated with a reserve that could not have been more delicate if Miss Rossetti had herself dictated the words. Her own piety tended so strongly to the Roman Catholic type that it is strange to find her refusing her first suitor, a painter, because he was a Roman Catholic. This was in 1849, when she was in her nineteenth year, and in 1866 a second offer was rejected because her lover was "either not a Christian at all, or else was a Christian of undefined and heterodox views." While her sister Maria Francesca was an Anglican nun, her brother Dante Gabriel was a free-thinker. But for her devotion to her mother and other members of her family, she would probably have followed her sister into the nunnery. She was, says Dante Gabriel, "an outer sister," and in one respect she was less Puritan and more Romanist than Francesca, who would not look at William Blake's illustrations of the Book of Job for fear of breaking the second commandment, while Christina's mysticism, which was intense and all-pervading, must have made her sympathetic with the whole range of Roman Catholic art, however frank its representations of the Deity.

Her difference from Dante Gabriel was a very interesting one. His liberal use of mediæval pieties in his paintings and poems was altogether sentimental and æsthetic. He believed nothing of the Roman Catholic doctrine or legend. But Christina pounced upon nothing in this field that was not her own as a sincere and vital part of her religious life. It was the opinion of her brother William that she wrote nothing as a poet which she did not believe as a saint. She served a long apprenticeship, and, while her poetical self-consciousness was developed at an early age, it was not until 1862 that her first volume of poems was fairly published. We say "fairly published" because in 1847 her maternal grandfather, G. Polidori, privately printed a volume of her 'Verses.' Between this time and the publication of her first and most significant volume in 1862, many of the poems collected in that volume appeared in various magazines, a large proportion of the many in *Macmillan's Magazine*. Mr. Bell has given us an elaborate bibliography both of her separate publications and her works. The former is somewhat confusing, because it is not chronological; one magazine is reported on and then another. Until 1890 her income from her writings was never more than £45 a year, and often less; after that it rapidly increased. It did so, we infer, less because of a growing appreciation of her poetry than because of her manuals of piety, 'Time Flies' and 'The Face of the Deep,' the latter "A Devotional Commentary on the Apocalypse." There were several others of the same kind, and all of them together secured her an extensive following of such pious souls as dote on Keble's 'Christian Year,' though it is interesting that she herself thought nothing of Keble's poetry, or rather of Keble as a poet. The favor which she met with as a religious writer did much for her reputation as a poet in Anglican Church circles, and possibly something to injure it among those who think that "beauty is its own excuse for being." She became more and more the poet of a special cult, of those "readers who," as her brother William aptly wrote, "drawing the deepest delight from such poetry as specially appeals to them, never read any other, and have but small knowledge of poetry as a fine art."

She suffered much from ill health, and the effect of this upon her verse was not agreeable to those who cared more for her poetry than for her piety. Mr. Bell has concluded the story of her life in five chapters, after which he takes up her work, under its different aspects, in four more, ending with a "Critical Survey." Several of the pictures of her face are interesting, and one of those by her brother Dante is very lovely, but she warns us not to credit her with all its beauty. So many of her admirers have thought of her as "an unbodied joy" that they will be surprised and shocked to read of her increasing "portliness." Her habits of composition were eminently spontaneous. One friend writes that she seldom revised her work, but William Rossetti writes that, after the impulsive production of her poems, "she took whatever pains she deemed requisite for keeping them right in form and expression." Mrs. Meynell writes that Christina always approached her subjects from the poetic side. William Rossetti says, No; from the religious. It cannot be said that either her least or most religious poems are the most beautiful. The most beautiful are those in which the religious spirit is interfused through poems not specifically religious.

Mr. Bell's "Critical Survey" is made up for the most part of quotations from other writers, some of them of the rarest competency in such matters. Dante Rossetti found in some of his sister's poems the "falsetto muscularity of the Barrett-Browning style," but Mr. Bell thinks the impeachment has no warrant. There have been many comparisons between the Italianized English-woman and the Anglicized Italian. There were both virtues and faults in Miss Rossetti's verses which had the color of her Italian blood. Mrs. Browning was much the more human of the two, and Mr. Bell's criticism, that some of her poems "owe their success, not to their qualities as poems, but to their vividness and insight in depicting the conditions they describe," is a peculiar one, as if such vividness and insight did not have much to do with the making of true poems. It is interesting to imagine what the comparative fame of Mrs. Browning would have been if she had written for high churchmen instead of for the low and broad—her special paradox, to which few have since attained, while the commingling of High-Church ritualism with Broad Church criticism has come to be a commonplace affair. It is interesting, on the other hand, to imagine what poems Miss Rossetti would have given us if she had had Mrs. Browning's experience of full and satisfying love.

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None of her poems has so keen a personal note as Mrs. Browning's "Portuguese Sonnets"; and yet it is her sonnets which approach the region of their personal sentiment that are Miss Rossetti's most memorable and perfect things.

Manuel de l'Histoire de la Littérature française. Par Ferdinand Brunetière, de l'Académie française. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.

A new book by M. Brunetière must of necessity command attention; and when it turns out to be a book in form and purpose differing from those which have already appeared under his name, the interest of curiosity is increased. It is not, however, strictly accurate to say that the purpose of the present Manual is different from that which the writer has hitherto set before himself. M. Brunetière has always sought to make French literature known better and in a more intelligent way. So far, then, the Manual carries out the same idea. It is distinct in this, that criticism such as we are accustomed to connect with the author's name does not occupy the most prominent place or fill up the greater part of the book. There is plenty of criticism in it, of the right kind, coming at the right time, but the chief object is to give the reader a clear and vivid view of French literature through the ages. In this M. Brunetière has succeeded beyond expectation, and his book is one of the most useful additions to the student's stock in trade and to the teacher's resources which have been published in many years. Indeed, it would be difficult to point to any other history or manual or primer of French literature which does for us just what this one accomplishes. There are plenty of excellent works in which one may find catalogues of writers and their works, with dates of everything relating to them, and with the stock estimate of their rank in history. There are others in which dates and accuracy are scarce, but in which the anecdote replaces them to the perfect satisfaction of a certain class of teachers and students. Others, again, like Faguet's 'Études,' are admirable studies of the prominent writers of an epoch, but do not profess to do more than to study those particular writers and that particular age. M. Brunetière's 'Manuel' is better than all of its class in this, that it gives us a "vue d'ensemble" of the whole literary movement in France from the origins to the present day. For this alone we should be greatly beholden to it, and for this alone we should be grateful to the author, for he has done in a brilliant and philosophical way what no other author has done so well or so thoroughly. When, in addition, the work provides us with a satisfactory substitute for the catalogue style of history, and a substitute which, like the synthetical view of the movement of thought, is full of suggestions and ideas, it is hard to say what more the teacher or student can ask for.

Here is another peculiarity of the 'Manuel': it is at once a broad and comprehensive review and a mine of information. The result has been obtained by separating the two parts, including in the former the history of thought and its expression, in the latter the abundant details concerning the life and works of the chief authors recognized as classical and important. This latter portion is perhaps the more fruitful in suggestions of subjects for inquiry and research, as may be seen at a glance by referring to the articles on Molière, La Fontaine, Voltaire, and others—men about whom it might have been supposed that "tout est dit," but about whom or whose works M. Brunetière has the art of finding or suggesting something new.

The style of the book has a charm of its own. It may as well be owned that not always has M. Brunetière written in a style which, without losing any of the power and authority which mark him, has at the same time grace and vivacity. To this we are not accustomed in his writings. The book reads trippingly; the arguments are clear and usually cogent; the reasons stated luminously, and the conclusions set forth in such fashion that blind indeed must he be who does not know the author's opinion, and strong indeed he who is not made to share it in part if not in whole.

The Wound-Dresser: A Series of Letters Written from the Hospitals in Washington during the War of the Rebellion by Walt Whitman. Edited by Richard Maurice Bucke, M.D., one of Whitman's Literary Executors. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1898.

The title of Dr. Bucke's present collection of Whitman's letters is, possibly, intended as a tribute to that bad taste of the poet which was one of the most conspicuous aspects of his mind. Two letters written by Whitman in February and March, 1863, to the New York *Times* and the Brooklyn *Eagle* give his general conception of the condition of affairs in the Washington hospitals to which the letters following furnish many special illustrations. It is easy to understand, from both the public and the private letters, why he was not always *persona grata* to the officers, physicians, and nurses having the hospital in charge. His comments tend to adverse criticism with a persistent gravitation, notwithstanding his general recognition of the efficient fidelity of the army surgeons. His conception of his own function is expressed when he writes, "There is something in personal love, caresses, and the magnetic flood of sympathy and friendship, that does, in its way, more good than all the medicine in the world. . . . I believe that even the moving around among the men, or through the ward, of a hearty, healthy, clean, strong, generous-souled person, man or woman, full of humanity and love, sending out invisible, constant currents thereof, does immense good to the sick and wounded." The author of "Calamus" speaks audibly in these phrases. At the same time it must be said that Whitman does not seem to have spared himself any disagreeable duty, or, rather, anything that would have been disagreeable but for his poetic doctrine that there is nothing common or unclean. The test for the reality of his doctrine must have been a severe one, and it would be interesting to know if he was satisfied with the result. His sympathy with the sufferings of the soldiers and their homesick yearnings brightens every page. The letters in their continuity give a more graphic picture of hospital life and death than we have seen elsewhere, and we have here a human document that may be particularly commended to those who differ from Prof. Drummond as to "The Greatest Thing in the World," confident that that is not love but war.

These letters are instructive not only with regard to Whitman's hospital service, but with regard to his devotion to his mother and other members of his family. Writing to his mother, there is hardly a sentence that does not begin "Mother." If the word is omitted at the beginning of the sentence, it is put in further on. If this form smacks of affectation, it is impossible to doubt the reality and warmth of the affection which permitted itself an artificial trait. Possibly it was a concession to the mother's simple heart, and the appearance of illiteracy here and there may have the same excuse. The heliotype picture of the mother is that of a most comfortable soul, deserving of all filial loyalty. How much of a dandy Whitman was in his personal attire has here fresh illustration. The highest collar could not delight the wearer more than his opposite extreme. He trampled on the pride of dandyism, but with greater pride.

Southern Soldier Stories. By George Cary Eggleston. With illustrations by R. F. Zogbaum. The Macmillan Co. 12mo, pp. 251.

Mr. Eggleston has already proved his gift at telling the experiences and incidents of the civil war. This series of short stories of the Confederate camp is full of the spirit of camp life, with its quick alternations of grave and gay. The stories are very short ones, generally—many of them only three or four pages long; but the writer comes to the point at once, and wastes no time in preliminaries or in moralizing afterward. The thread on which they are strung is the service of a Confederate soldier, in Stuart's cavalry at the beginning of the war, and then in the artillery. Chronology is openly disregarded, the scene shifting from Beaufort Harbor, on the South Carolina coast, to the front of Washington in 1861, or to the Wilderness campaign in 1864, the lines of Petersburg, or back to the Carolinas. The veteran is supposed to be telling his tales as they happen to occur to him, whether from his own experience or that of his comrades; the first person, as he says, meaning no more than that he gives them as he got them, illustrative of the Southern soldier's life, whether his own or another's. A few turn on the heroic devotion of mothers and maidens to the cause for which the boys were fighting, and some have touching bits of sentimental romance, more or less probable. The best work is done in very realistic scenes, like the "Rather Bad Night" at Bluffton, where the officer visits the artillery outpost fronting Hilton Head, while the Union gunboats were feeling their way up the inlet in a night "dark as a pocket."

The book is a very taking one to pick up at odd minutes, the brisk stories being rattled off so quickly that we get a lively sensation to carry away with us at a glance, as it were. There is no question of the verisimilitude of the situations. The author speaks from the fulness of genuine soldierly experience, and his genial comradeship and freedom from bitterness will make his tales as pleasing to the Union soldier as to his fellow-artillerists in Lambkin's Battery.

Trail and Camp-fire: The Book of the Boone and Crockett Club. Editors, George B. Grinnell, Theodore Roosevelt. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

The lover of books on hunting learns with

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sorrow that the Boone and Crockett Club proposes to issue one every two years; for, as is stated in the excellent chapter in this volume on the literature of big game, there are multitudes of books on the subject and most of them are bad. This adjective does not apply to 'Trail and Camp-fire,' the marked inequality of whose contents nevertheless forcibly suggests such applicability to its successors, should time rather than material become the basis of publication. Furthermore, the reader feels that a skilful compiler, with full authority to reject and condense, could produce from this book and its two predecessors, 'American Big-Game Hunting' and 'Hunting in Many Lands,' a single volume that would without hesitation be pronounced good.

The five objects of the Club, to promote sport with the rifle, travel and exploration, preservation of large game, observation of their habits, and interchange of opinions on these subjects, are well illustrated in the dozen articles that form a small octavo of 350 pages, neither printed nor bound in a manner commensurate with its price. Two articles set forth the successful efforts of certain members of the Club to establish a zoölogical garden in New York city, and to protect the deer of the Adirondack forest. Two others give detailed accounts of hunting trips in East Africa and in Newfoundland. A fifth, the description of a Canadian lake, is reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*. The remainder of the book is alike the more instructive and the more entertaining half. It contains a concise but admirable summary, by A. P. Low of the Canadian Geological Survey, of recent exploration in what has been the least known portion of North America, the interior of the Labrador peninsula. The student of American geography will appreciate his explanation of the wondrous reports of an inland sea, second only to Lake Superior, and of a mighty cataract, the rival of Niagara—reports which are reflected in the maps of the United States Land Office and in the latest editions of popular encyclopædias.

Two papers on the nature and habits of the wolf and of the bear, contributed by the editors, compete in interest with the character sketch, by Lewis S. Thompson, of the Guide Cherry, whose "failing was the careless manner in which he handled the truth." Once Cherry found himself in a narrow trail on the side of a precipice, unarmed, between two grizzlies, one following and the other approaching. His resourcefulness was equal to the occasion. Throwing his clothes over the cliff, he advanced on all fours, and, thanks to the unusual amount of hair on his body, personated with such success his foe's fellow-bear that, after a complimentary growl, each went his way in peace.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dictionary of the Bible. Vol. I. A—Feasts. Scribners.
Baldwin, James. School Reading by Grades. 6 vols. American Book Co.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Heroic Personalities. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Billroth, Dr. Th. The Care of the Sick. 4th ed. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. Across the Salt Seas. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Bremen Lectures on Great Religious Questions of To-Day. New ed. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society.
Bryant, W. M. Life, Death, and Immortality. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.75.
Cadet, Félix. Port-Royal Education. Scribners. $1.50.
Cheiro's Language of the Hand. 7th ed. F. T. Neely.
Clarke, M. Story of Æneas. American Book Co. 40c.
Conrad, Joseph. The Children of the Sea. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Conrad, Joseph. Tales of Unrest. Scribners. $1.25.
Cooper, T. V. The New Equality. Philadelphia: Fireside Publishing Co. 10c.
Crowell, J. F. The Logical Process of Social Development. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Davis, D. W. 'Weh Down Souf, and Other Poems. Cleveland, O.: Helman-Taylor Co. $1.
Dearmer, Rev. Percy. Religious Pamphlets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Dix, Rev. Morgan. Blessing and Ban from the Cross of Christ. James Pott & Co. $1.
Donaldson, Thomas. The House in which Jefferson Wrote the Declaration of Independence. Philadelphia: Avil Printing Co.
Doran, James. In the Depths of the First Degree. A Romance of Bull Run. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.50.
D'Orléans, Prince Henry. From Tonkin to India. January, '95—January, '96. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Dryden, John. Palamon and Arcite. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts XII. and XIII. Putnams. Each $1.
Essays of Schopenhauer. Translated by Mrs. Rudolf Dircks. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 40c.
Flint, Grover. Marching with Gomez. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Gissing, George. Charles Dickens. A Critical Study. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Gleason, C. W. The Cyropædia of Xenophon. Abridged for Schools. American Book Co. $1.25.
Goss, C. F. The Philopolist; or, City Lover. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Gould, S. Baring. Bladys Stewponey. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Halévy, L. Autumn Manœuvres: Stories and Sketches. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Harrison, Mrs. Belle R. Poems. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Hutcheson, Rev. J. T. A View of the Atonement. James Pott & Co. $1.
Julleville, Prof. L. Petit de. Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome V. Dix-septième siècle (1661-1700). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Le Gallienne, Richard. The Romance of Zion Chapel. John Lane. $1.50.
Maclay, E. S. Reminiscences of the Old Navy. Putnams. $2.50.
Mason, Caroline A. A Minister of the World. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Nicholls, Sir George. A History of the English Poor Law. 2 vols. Putnams. $10.
Pearl Necklace of Thoughts of Women. From the French by Henri Pène du Bois. Meyer Bros. & Co.
Phillips, Melville. The Senator's Wife. F. T. Neely.
Pugh, Edwin. King Circumstance. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Robert, Gustave. La Musique à Paris, 1896-1897. Paris: Delagrave.
Robertson, Morgan. Spun-Yarn; Sea Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Robertson, T. S. The Progress of Art in English Church Architecture. London: Gay & Bird.
Russell, H. B. International Monetary Conferences. Harpers. $2.50.
Samelson, Moses. How to Right a Wrong. F. T. Neely.
Seaton, R. C. Sir Hudson Lowe and Napoleon. London: David Nutt.
Sheldon, C. M. Malcolm Kirk. Chicago: The Church Press. 50c.
Steevens, G. W. With the Conquering Turk: Confessions of a Bashi-Bazouk. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Strong, Rev. Josiah. The Twentieth Century City. Baker & Taylor Co. 50c.
Turbet, W. G. Fighting for Favor. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Thanksgivings After the Communion. New York: R. H. Russell.
The Living Age. Jan.-March, 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
The Spectator. Vols III., IV., and V. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Webster, Daniel. Representative Speeches. [Little Masterpieces.] Doubleday & McClure Co. 30c.
Weir, Dr. James, jr. The Psychical Correlation of Religious Emotion and Sexual Desire. 2d ed. Louisville, Ky.: Courier-Journal Printing Co.
Wells, J. Oxford and its Colleges. 2d ed. London: Methuen & Co.
Whitman, Walt. Complete Prose Works. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $2.
Wood, Joanna E. Judith Moore; or, Fashioning a Pipe. Toronto: Ontario Publishing Co.

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